The Nation.

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The Week.

Senator Morgan of Alabama continues in a state of moral deafness or judicial blindness in reference to the coming election. In a recent interview he is quoted as saying:

"I do not see that the Democrats have anything to gain by controlling the next House of Representatives. I do not believe the Democrats of this country want to constitute themselves a clog to legislation; yet that result would naturally follow. With the two branches of Congress of opposite political faith, the Government will be seriously embarrassed. There is nothing to gain by a condition of this kind. It would not be any advantage to any one."

The Senator's argument would be equally valid against any attempt by the Democrats to carry any election unless they could secure the House, the Senate, and the Executive, all at once, since gaining one of the three without the others would be a clog to legislation. But there is something else besides legislation which the House or the Senate can usefully employ. It can investigate even if it cannot legislate, and investigation is needed at the present time even more than legislation. Six years have passed since the Democrats have had a sufficient number of votes in either house to investigate anything on their own initiative. All inquiries into the doings of the executive branches of the Government, the army, and colonial affairs have been conducted under Republican auspices, and in some cases have been extremely unfair and partisan. Nothing is more needed at the present time than a searchlight directed by persons who want to find out facts instead of those who want to conceal them. For this reason, if for no other, the election of a Democratic House this fall would be a blessing to the country.

It is the most natural thing in the world to find Lieut.-Governor Woodruff caught, as Senator Quay recently was, violating the civil-service laws. Politicians of their kidney never think of the law against political assessments as a statute to be obeyed. It is, to them, simply a thing to be got round in the safest way possible. There stands the law of the State, declaring it a misdemeanor for any officer of the State of New York to sign his name to such a ccercion circular as went, bearing Woodruff's signature, to every place-holder in Brooklyn. Of course, he may plead, as Quay did, that it was put there without his knowledge or consent; but it is safe to say that, if he did not authorize it, it was placed on the illegal circular by some one who was very sure that Woodruff would not object—unless, indeed, it should turn out to be in violation of the Eleventh Commandment of small-potato politicians (the only one they really care about), "Thou shalt not be found out."

"I can see no serious national ills at present." Thus, in the *Independent*, writes the Quay Governor of Pennsylvania, one William A. Stone, whose name stands in the public mind for official incapacity and weakness. "It is, indeed," he continues, "unfortunately true that there are labor strikes and industrial disturbances, but they are not evidences of financial depression. They are, on the contrary, evidences of industrial prosperity, for they only occur in a serious manner when the country is prosperous." Using the same philosophy, smallpox and yellow fever are a sign of health in the person afflicted, and paralysis merely an indication that all is well with the patient's general condition. What else could one have expected from such a Governor? When the whole country was brought to the verge of unheard-of suffering and distress, when his own State was seething with lawlessness, he could see nothing in the situation which called for any action except the dispatching of a handful of troops. His voice was never heard in condemnation or warning. He withheld the full weight of his armed hand until compelled thereto by overwhelming public sentiment. The 147,000 men thrown out of employment may have felt no "financial depression," but thousands of others were plunged into it and into moral and physical suffering by the surplus of prosperity in Pennsylvania.

The coal companies are to be commended for their firm stand in regard to the non-union miners who worked for them at the risk of their lives during the strike. Many of these men prevented serious and lasting damage to the mines by their devotion to duty. To turn them out now at the behest of the strikers would be an outrageous return for their extremely valuable services. Naturally enough, the companies have declined to take the slightest notice of the numerous threats of the strikers, and have, moreover, served notice that any employee molesting a non-union worker will be immediately dismissed. "Dismissed and prosecuted" the notices should read, if only because the few offenders captured by the troops have thus far practically escaped punishment, or are likely to get off with light sentences. Nothing that the Arbitration Commission can say or do will affect the relations of the non-union men to their employers. There was no issue between the strikers and the operators which related to the employment of non-union men, and Mitchell himself has diplomatically spoken out against discrimination.

The general strike of the plasterers of this city should call attention to the fairly mediæval conditions under which building is conducted here. We know of small contractors who deal with upwards of a dozen separate unions, any one of which may, upon a good or bad pretext, hold up the whole work. The subdivision of handicraft went no further at the time of the old trade guilds. To add to the difficulty, there are rival unions, as in the case of the painters and paperhangers. The employment of either union may involve a boycott by the other, and the case has lately arisen at the White House, as well as in the new building of the Union Club. In the present case the employers' association refuses an increase of 50 cents a day, offering $4.50, and declines to let the plasterers' union appoint the foremen. Naturally, no employer, and especially no contractor, is willing to give up the right to direct the laborers he pays. Accordingly, the employers' association will fight on the issue of retaining control of its own business. Work is already suspended in some dozen important buildings, and the striking plasterers have it in their power to call out practically all the allied trades, painters, plumbers, glaziers, etc. It is to be hoped that the employers' association will stand firm. In no other branch of industry is the incorporation of the unions so necessary, for in no other does the union wield so much irresponsible power. Architects and building contractors are under strict legal bonds and penalties which do not exist for the multifarious organizations that actually control the building trade.

The War Department, thanks to Messrs. Charles Francis Adams, Carl Schurz, Moorfield Storey, and others, has investigated the case of the Filipino priest, Father Augustin, tortured and killed by Capt. Cornelius M. Brownell of the Twenty-sixth Volunteer Infantry, and has found sufficient evidence on hand to justify the Attorney-General in proceeding in the matter. We have lost count of the number of times the charges in this case have been declared, in official and semi-official circles, to be nonsense, but it is entirely due to the much-maligned Anti-Imperialist Committee that there is now a chance of justice being done at last. If Secretary Root's policy of suppression and connivance had continued, this case would have been entirely overlooked and the facts denied. It is interesting to

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note that the special dispatch to the *Tribune* telling of the action in the Brownell case concludes by saying that there are still nearly one hundred charges against the War Department and army "which the Anti-Imperialists make no pretence of establishing, and the War Department can only contemptuously ignore." It "contemptuously ignored" Father Augustin's murder for a year or two until Anti-Imperialists produced the facts. Then, after several months, it took action on September 18, and it has taken the Judge-Advocate-General five weeks to decide whether the case should be referred to the Attorney-General or not. The War Department need not delude itself into believing that it will be allowed to "contemptuously ignore" all the other cases, for the Lake George Committee, which is shaming the War Department by doing its work of prosecution, has plenty of additional evidence on hand to submit at the proper time.

Gov. Taft, on October 22, addressed twenty-two officials of towns situated in the province of Cavité, and gave them to understand that they and their people must unite to suppress crime. To this "must" the presidentes at once submitted, and promised to organize volunteers to act as police. They then turned the tables squarely by asking Gov. Taft to have a vagrancy act passed that would reach the "dissolute Americans and foreigners" who have settled among them. "Many of these men," the dispatch continues, "make their homes with the natives, and the influence of these men is often bad." The Government having been frequently called upon to remove these vicious characters, Gov. Taft was apparently quite aware of the evil, and in turn promised to have the desired law enacted at once. We give prominence to this interesting occurrence for two reasons. In the first place, no Republican newspaper, we are certain, will notice it in any way. In the second place, we are thus furnished with an official admission that our beneficent civilizing process has unloaded upon one province so many rascals as to make their removal the crying need of the hour. We well remember with what joy the Imperialist press chronicled the news that large numbers of discharged soldiers were settling in the islands. This was a sure sign that the Americanization of the Philippines would proceed apace and in the best possible way.

A dispatch to the Associated Press from Manila says that the depreciation in the value of silver has cost the insular Government approximately $1,000,000, and has turned an expected Treasury surplus into a deficit. The gold dollar is now worth $2.40 in silver. The Government is thus going through the same trials that British India experienced ten years ago. The dispatch adds that merchants have suffered losses in the same way as the Government. That is, they have bought their goods on the gold basis and have sold them on the silver basis. They are now trying to put their business on the gold basis exclusively. This is not an easy thing to do. Congress ought to take up this question immediately and pass the House bill of the last session, which was a measure for transition from the silver to the gold standard, similar in effect to that adopted by Japan. At the last session of Congress the two houses disagreed on the question of the Philippine currency. The Senate adopted a plan for confirming and retaining the silver standard. The House refused to concur, and signified its purpose to kill the whole Philippine Government bill rather than assent to that feature of it. As the Senate was equally stubborn, there was nothing to do but to abandon both plans and leave the currency question *in statu quo*—that is, with the Mexican silver dollar as the standard unit of value. This condition cannot last much longer without producing dire distress among the Americans who are condemned to live there, and among the upper classes generally.

It is improbable that fifty persons in the United States not in official life were aware that an arbitration was pending between Germany on the one hand, and the United States and Great Britain on the other, concerning affairs in the Samoan Islands, or one affair therein. It seems, however, to be a fact that such a case has been in court since November 7, 1899, the arbitrator being the King of Sweden and Norway. It has been decided by King Oscar in favor of Germany. The finding of his Majesty is, that when the naval forces of the United States and Great Britain in Samoan waters fired on the canoes of one of the rival claimants to the throne of Samoa, and landed a force of bluejackets in the island of Apia, in the year 1898, they exceeded their authority. The usual consequence of an arbitration, as of an ordinary lawsuit, is a claim for damages on the part of private individuals. These amounted originally to about $30,000, but after the case was referred to arbitration they rose to $300,000, which is probably in excess of the value of all the property on the island of Apia at the time when the damage was inflicted.

In addition to the papers heretofore published relating to the title to the Panama Canal, is a written opinion of M. Waldeck-Rousseau, former Premier of the French republic. In his professional capacity, he says that "by the transfer the United States will acquire the firmest and most impregnable title of ownership to the property transferred, and will assume no other obligations than those stipulated for in the contract of transfer itself, without any claim being possible to be made, either by the old company, or by its shareholders, or by the liquidator, or by its creditors and bondholders, or by their representatives." This covers every claim on the other side of the Atlantic. Attorney-General Knox has procured an abstract of title for an intending purchaser, has given his own opinion upon it, and has procured that of a first-rate lawyer in France. The United States as an intending purchaser has given notice to all governments and peoples, and especially to those of France, of what she is about, so that all concerned may have their day in court. Therefore, when the money is paid over, the title passes, and everybody in Europe is concluded. Not even a case for the Hague tribunal could be raised afterwards, since that tribunal deals only with claims presented by governments. But, of course, the money will not be paid until a settlement is effected with the Colombian Government. The United States will not buy a pig in a poke either in Panama or in Nicaragua.

Texas has been peculiarly disgraced by three recent lynchings within her borders. In the case at Nacogdoches there was a feint made at compliance with legal forms. Few men voluntarily surrender thirty days of life, and the prisoner's waiving of the time mercifully granted by the law to prepare for eternity was due undoubtedly to a preference for death by the rope to torture at the stake. From Governor down to Judge, Sheriff, and militia officer, it was a cringing surrender to the demand of the mob, without the poor excuse of averting a worse result, as soldiers enough to protect the prisoner in his rights were present. It is small wonder that this concession to Judge Lynch at Nacogdoches was followed so quickly by the lawless hanging at Hempsted of two negroes, whose coerced waiving of the thirty-day period was not accepted by a just judge.

The long-debated matter of segregation of the sexes at the University of Chicago has resulted in a compromise. In the Junior College, consisting of first and second-year students, the young men and young women are to be put into separate classes; beyond the Junior College the old coeducational system will prevail. It is easy to see practical reasons for this not wholly logical solution of the problem. The required elementary courses of the freshman and sophomore year, crowded as they are, offer in any case difficulties to the teacher which do not exist in the case of the smaller and more advanced elective courses. Virtually, Chicago University refuses to teach the younger men and women together

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en masse, but signifies a willingness to abide by the old system with the older and more serious students. Of course, the decision will satisfy neither the advocates nor the opponents of coeducation. The former will say that if coeducation is a good thing, the under-class students should not be deprived of its benefits; the latter will insist that since coeducation is pernicious, it should be abolished throughout the college. Neutrals in the controversy will see at least this virtue in the Chicago compromise, that under it the relative advantages of segregation and coeducation will be put to an actual test. The young men who study masculine analytical chemistry will proceed to coeducational organic chemistry, and the comparison of results should prove whether the presence of the other sex is a distraction or a stimulus. But educational radicals of all complexions would like to have President Harper and his trustees come out frankly and declare whether this change is in favor of the two years' college course recently advocated by President Butler, or whether coeducation in the upper-class years is held out as an inducement to waverers to be faithful to the end.

It is some months since the case of Gross vs. Rostand brought the subject of plagiarism to the fore, and now the suit of Mr. Victor Herbert against the *Musical Courier* is likely to cause more innocent merriment than was ever had from his excellent comic operas. Some time after Mr. Herbert ceased to use the *Courier* as an advertising medium, there began in it a series of unfavorable notices, in which both the popularity and the originality of Mr. Herbert's music were impeached. To the charge of plagiarism the composer rejoined with a libel suit, to cast his defamer in damages. Those who recall the judicial comparison of "The Merchant Prince of Cornville" and "Cyrano de Bergerac" will appreciate the greater difficulties that assailed Judge Truax. How may a composer prove to the satisfaction of a jury, none of whom are musical, that his music is his own? Witnesses have been found to swear that they have *seen* Mr. Herbert in the very act of composition, and that no scores of other composers were in sight. This kind of testimony, which has only a laughable kind of plausibility, is, after all, the best that coudd be offered on Mr. Herbert's side. For the defence, sundry musical "experts" declared that they felt that this *morceau* of Mr. Herbert's was Offenbach's, and that phrase Wagner's—this on their mere say-so. What seemed to be needed was, first, a musical jury, and, next, an experimental orchestra, as *amicus curiæ*, by which every alleged plagiarism might first be played and then its asserted original, the duty of the jury being to hum over the two pieces *sotto voce* until, as good men and true musicians, they were convinced that the pieces were one, or are two. However, the ordinary jury proved quite competent to arrive at a just decision.

Recent reports that Sir Wilfrid Laurier would resign are apparently unfounded; indeed, the prompt dismissal of the protectionist Minister of Public Works, Israel Tarte, indicates a certain haste on Sir Wilfrid's part to resume the responsibility of leadership. That the sacking of Minister Tarte, with the accompanying reprimand, is in the interest of the Liberal party, no one can doubt. Mr. Tarte had been speaking in season and out of season for an advanced protectionist policy, although the Ministry to which he belongs is traditionally attached to free trade, and actually bound to the present low tariff schedules. To the rebuke which Sir Wilfrid administers while requesting his resignation, Mr. Tarte could only say that he had spoken as his heart urged him to speak—an explanation which apparently did not convince Laurier that kind hearts are more than party regularity. This dismissal of Tarte was a bold move, for he is past-master of the arts of the politician, and powerful in the over-represented province of Quebec. Sir Wilfrid's action fairly clears the political atmosphere and brings back the Liberals to their old lights. Unless local conditions, particularly in the province of Ontario, should be unfavorable, the present government will have every prospect of continued existence under its skilled opportunist leader.

It is an odd fate that is to send Joseph Chamberlain to South Africa in the character of a peacemaker, and yet recent events have made him in a sense the champion of the Cape Colony and, perhaps involuntarily, the friend of the Cape Dutch. It will be remembered that Lord Milner was unwilling to restore Parliamentary rule in Cape Colony, and there were other observers to insist "that the Cape Colony should be reduced to the same administrative status as those colonies lately acquired by force of arms, . . . and responsible government ought not to be restored one day earlier in the Cape Colony than in the Orange River Colany and the Transvaal." To this counsel of suspicion Mr. Chamberlain opposed the more generous policy of assuming that the Cape Colony was loyal, and fit, not only to conduct its own affairs, but to help in the great task of reconstruction in South Africa. So far the Cape Parliament has rather signally fallen short of Mr. Chamberlain's generous expectation. The Afrikander Bond has asserted its predominance, has apparently captured the Premier, Sir Gordon Sprigg, and has devoted itself chiefly to unseemly squabbles between the loyal Dutch and the more radical members of the Bond. The loyal Dutch have naturally been a difficult element to manage. They have demanded quite their full share of the £3,000,000 indemnity for restocking the ravaged farms, and they have with bitterness insisted upon the strict execution of the war penalties, much as our American Tories would have done had George III. made good his title to the American colonies. With these people the very means of conciliation have been made matters of strife. Mr. Chamberlain will come more directly upon the work of his own hand when he visits the new crown colonies of the Orange River and the Transvaal, sees the dismantled farms, and studies the conditions of forced labor at the mines. His visit will be not merely by way of inspection, but, in the eyes of the world, by way of reparation. To put the burden of taxation upon the miners, for whom the war was fought, will seem to them like base ingratitude; to Mr. Chamberlain it may seem like poetic justice.

Last week's defeat of the German Ministry was in itself humiliating enough when the size of the majority against it is considered. It was all the more bitter a dose for Count von Bülow, because it followed his earnest and eloquent appeal to the Reichstag, in the course of which he again declared himself the warm friend of the Agrarians. None the less, the Reichstag insisted upon the recommendation of the Tariff Committee for higher duties on wheat and rye than the Government could possibly grant. As if to complete the Chancellor's mortification, the only votes cast for the Government were by the three parties—Social-Democrats, National Liberals, and Radicals—which have oftenest opposed the Government, and which the Government has hitherto regarded with suspicion, distrust, and, very frequently, hostility. So complete a change of the pawns in this game cannot but have important results. The Chancellor's policy has hitherto been to strive by concessions, promises, and smooth words to tide the Ministry over difficult places, rather than to threaten and browbeat in Bismarckian style. For the latter policy Count von Bülow is in no way fitted. On the other hand, he must have long since exhausted every possible promise in his efforts to avoid yesterday's defeat. It is quite possible, therefore, that the Chancellor's usefulness has reached an end. Even if the Kaiser decides to let him fight on a while longer, there are many equally dangerous rocks before him on which he may again come to grief. The way out may be to suppress the bill in the Bundesrath, or to dissolve the Reichstag. Either would be most unwelcome to the Ministry, and add to its unpopularity.

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THE ELECTION FORECAST.

That there will be Republican losses at the elections is certain. The only question is, will those losses be great enough to turn the majority of that party in the present House of Representatives into a minority in the next? For more than sixty years the party which won at any particular Presidential election has been unable to maintain its strength unimpaired at the Congressional elections in the middle of that Presidential term. Whigs in 1842 and 1850, Democrats in 1838, 1846, 1854, 1858, 1886, and 1894, and Republicans in 1862, 1866, 1870, 1874, 1878, 1882, 1890, and 1898, alike found that to the universality of the rule there was no exception. The change in the House of Representatives has sometimes been small, as in 1878, when the Republicans lost only some eight seats, counting sixteen on a division. It has sometimes been very great, as in 1894, when the Democrats returned 113 fewer members than they did in 1892. In the twelve off-year elections which have taken place since the formation of the Republican party, the average loss of the party which had won the preceding election was forty-three seats, counting eighty-six on a division. If the Republican losses this year shall reach the average of the last forty-eight years, the Democratic majority in the House will be about forty-seven.

Of course, President Roosevelt's Administration can sustain as serious losses as those of President Hayes in 1878, of President Cleveland in 1886, or of President McKinley in 1898, and still retain control of the lower house of Congress. In considering the probabilities of the Republicans securing a majority of the next House, it must be borne in mind that, in order to do so, they must, outside of the eleven States which formerly made up the Southern Confederacy, elect about two-thirds of all the members. Under the new apportionment, those eleven States will have ninety-eight members. Of these the Republicans cannot with certainty count upon securing more than two—those from the First and Second (East) Tennessee districts. Not more than three other districts are even doubtful. If the Republicans shall secure four members out of the entire ninety-eight, they will be doing very well indeed. In that event, the South, as above defined, will be represented in the Fifty-eighth Congress by ninety-four Democrats and four Republicans. The Administration will, therefore, to retain control of the House, have to elect one hundred and ninety out of the two hundred and eighty-nine members from the other thirty-four States. That is, it will have to put its candidates at the head of the poll in more than 65 per cent. of all the Congressional districts of the Northern and Border States, including among the latter Missouri and Kentucky, with their large and overwhelmingly Democratic delegations.

Experience seems to indicate that it is usually only in times when political feeling in the North is keenly aroused that any such degree of unanimity can be looked for. Since the organization of the Republican party in 1854, it has succeeded in only nine out of twenty-four Congressional elections in securing 65 per cent. of the Representatives from the Northern and Border States. Its first triumph of this kind was won in the year of its birth. Then the North was in the first flush of its indignation at the repeal of the Missouri Compromise by the enactment of the Kansas-Nebraska Act. The Republican triumph in many localities was facilitated by the Democratic disorganization which resulted from the sudden springing up of the Know-Nothing party. As a result, Northern and Border States sent to the Thirty-fourth Congress one hundred and seventeen anti-Nebraska men, as against fifty-four supporters of the Administration. The reaction soon came, and it was not until ten years later that, at the second election of Lincoln, in 1864, the Republicans were able to do as well as they had done in the middle of President Pierce's term. In 1864 their success in the Northern States was due to the popularity of President Lincoln and to the intensity of the war fever, then at its height. The disfranchisement of a large part of their opponents in the Border States enabled them to win districts in which otherwise they would have had no chance. All these causes combined to give them more than three-fourths of the entire number of Representatives outside of the States then in rebellion.

In each of the elections of 1866 and 1868 they lost a little ground, but, so long as the Democratic opposition was handicapped by the unpopularity of President Johnson, the Republican strength remained substantially unimpaired, and in 1868 the Republicans elected 123 out of the 185 members from those States which had not been subjected to the processes of reconstruction. In 1870, however, they secured but 109 out of 185 members; but as in the reconstructed States they secured 30 out of the 58 seats, they retained control of the House. The fiasco of the Greeley campaign in 1872 again gave to the Republicans a more than two-thirds majority from the Northern and Border States, and for the last time they succeeded in securing more than half of the Representatives from the territory once included within the Southern Confederacy. Then came the panic of 1873, the full realization by the country of the scandalous conditions of public life in Washington, and the intensifying disgust with the carpet-bag administrations in the South; and at the election of 1874 the Republican majority of 99 from the Northern and Border States was turned into a minority of 31.

For twenty years after 1872, the Republicans were unable, outside of the eleven Southern States, to obtain a two-thirds majority. A great commercial crisis preceded the loss of their overwhelming supremacy in the Northern States. A like crisis, happening when a Democratic Administration was in power, preceded their regaining such supremacy. In 1892 there had been an opposition majority of 14 from the Northern and Border States. In 1894, out of the 267 members elected from those States, no less than 237 were Republicans, a proportion which has never before or since been even approximated. Two years later, even handicapped by Mr. Bryan's candidacy, the opposition gained forty seats in the Northern States, and in 1898 made a further gain of sixteen seats, thirteen of which, however, were again lost at the Presidential contest of 1900. It has, therefore, happened for the first time in the history of the Republican party that for four successive Congressional elections, viz., those of 1894, 1896, 1898, and 1900, the Republican party has had a two-thirds majority of the Representatives from the North and the Border. Even in the days of war and reconstruction, Republicans were not able to do so well for as many successive Congressional elections. It is to be noted, moreover, that of the seven off-year Congressional elections when there was a Republican President in the White House, only once, in 1898, have the Republicans secured that proportion of Representatives from the Northern and Border States which is now requisite for them to obtain if they are to have a majority in the House of Representatives. In 1862, in 1870, in 1874, in 1878, in 1882, and in 1890 they failed to get such a majority, and in 1874, 1882, and in 1890 they were in an absolute minority.

A MORE EXCELLENT WAY.

We shall make no apology for recurring to the subject of the coal strike. Its calamitous effects abide with us, and will continue for months to come. Every one of us is still being taxed for it, and a normal supply of fuel is remotely distant. The Commission which, in the minds of thousands, is expected to justify the strikers' methods by establishing the existence of grievances—large or petty—has yet to prosecute its labors. Few have sat down to consider thoughtfully the exact meaning and probable consequences of the President's intervention. Is the moral of it that trade-unionism has acquired a new weapon of offence, and that a strike has only to be outrageous enough to constrain the President to summon the victims to a

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conference and a forced composition? Has it, in other words, been a step towards suppressing strikes; or will it foster, even in humane and disinterested minds, the presumption that strikers are in the right, and encourage the mob to multiply and aggravate strikes? Does it emphasize the strategy of choosing a national-election year with a view to "getting a cinch" on the President as on all the tribe of machine politicians? Will it bring into the field, if not a Labor party, a new class of Presidential candidates and aspirants with "Labor" principles—such as we may expect the coming session of Congress to develop?

For our own part, we do not hesitate to declare the late crisis the most momentous since the civil war; and we are not unmindful of the Hayes-Tilden dilemma of 1876-77. Before it passes, with our frivolous public, into the limbo of the South African war, the destruction of St. Pierre, and the minor sensations of the year, we desire to "improve" it for the benefit of an unbalanced portion of the community. We refer to Anarchists with a capital A (by way of distinction from the coal-strike variety). If the last Presidential assassin were alive to-day, what reason he would have for envying Mitchell and for writing himself down an ass! His victim was a solitary man; Mitchell's killed and maimed are reckoned by scores. The dying McKinley carried away with him neither the office which furnished the motive for his murder, nor the national power to maintain it, refill it, and proceed, after a nine-days' ripple of excitement, unconcernedly, with the function of government absolutely unimpaired. Mitchell kept the country for five months in a state of famine, and threw it into a panic over a common necessary of life; threatened with a standstill the educational, charitable, and industrial machinery of the land, causing the very sun of civilization to pause in its course, and, with fresh disorders in reserve, dragged the President of the United States into the arena of controversy, and openly fraternized with him as an ally.

Moreover, Mitchell is alive. No incarceration awaits him; his body will not be interred with quicklime, his name will not be excluded from text-books and biographical dictionaries. A host of demagogues will sing his praises on the stump. He may be only at the beginning of his career. Already he has his "Mitchell Day." He neither moves by stealth in the consummation of his designs, nor conceals his deadly weapon in a cloth. In the midst of a reign of terror of his own creating, he goes to and fro directing operations in the presence of the militia, unmolested, and at least as much respected as the Governor of the State of which he is not even a citizen. He pinches the Navy Department for coal for its cruisers, and holds up ocean liners. Nobody seems to mind, many admire. What a contrast to a life of disguises, of fleeing from city to city and from continent to continent, with every man's hand against you. The Anarchist may well pause to reflect on this curious apportionment of public favor.

More than twenty years have elapsed since the second Alexander of Russia was assassinated. Since then, many a king, empress, and president has been taken off by bomb, dirk, or bullet without a single change in the form of government or any specific amelioration in the condition of the governed. If there is a spark of sense left among the Anarchists, they must see that they are on the wrong tack. Not only that, the experience of this country during the past five months is an object-lesson in the better way. Let the humblest of them, if the scene of his duty or his ambition be the United States, begin by becoming the henchman of a political boss. Let him assist in packing primaries and conventions, in filling the Legislature with men pledged to send the Boss to the United States Senate, and the Governor's chair with a creature pledged to approve whatever measures the Boss directs or permits the Legislature to pass. Meanwhile, let him join a trade-union and become a windy spouter at its secret meetings. Let him conspire to have the Boss's Legislature pass a bill forbidding the employment of any but certificated miners, and the Boss's Governor give his assent to it. Then let him see that no certificated miner can live in peace and safety if he do not enter the union. Meanwhile he himself may even enlist in the militia of the coal region. The time is now ripe for the strike which shall cripple the operators, bring awful distress upon the country, and begin the loosing of the bonds of society, his cherished aim. His taste for bloodshed can concurrently be gratified to the utmost upon every non-union laborer and his terror-stricken family; and all this with impunity.

It remains only to smother the patriotic feeling of the American people. Our Anarchist, if as cunning as he is bloodthirsty, will have begun afar off by preaching the doctrine of protection and international hatred. At the same time he will stimulate the clash of selfish interests in the struggle to plunder the consumer under color of law and philanthropy. The creation of divisions in the commonalty he will accelerate by his protective trade-union propaganda, into which he will carry all the political arts learned in the discipline of the Boss. No body of workers so insignificant but it must be made to organize, down to the "varnishers" of bretzels. Everywhere the output of labor must be hedged about by restrictions, by limitation of hours and of the number of craftsmen—so many tile-setters for a city, and no more; so many apprentices in a trade, and no more; one artisan one craft, or branch of craft, and no more. Walking delegates must earn their salary by throwing the performance of all contracts into complete uncertainty. Unions must make war not only on independent labor, but on each other.

A few years of this sort of chaos having sufficed to make it appear normal and natural, labor federations, overstepping State boundaries and interfering from without, work a continental havoc unquestioned and unresented like any local disturbance. Our Anarchist can now safely distribute American flags to school-children, with choice readings from 'The Man Without a Country.' When the little ones are turned out of school for want of coal which their parents have held back by contributing funds, say, in Massachusetts, to support Mitchell in Pennsylvania, our Anarchist can sing "Nunc dimittis," and, if he cannot conscientiously subscribe himself, can at least wring from the untaught pupils one more penny apiece for the half-million dollar monument at Canton, Ohio.

JOHN SHERMAN'S VIEWS.

We quoted the other day some extracts from speeches made by Henry Clay and Justin S. Morrill on the subject of the tariff existing in their time, showing that neither of these fathers of the system ever contemplated that protection should last forever, or be kept in force a day after the protected industries should have become firmly established at home. We shall now quote another representative man on the same side. There was a debate in the Senate in March, 1872, on a bill to reduce the duties on imports 10 per cent. all around. This was a Republican measure, both branches of Congress and the Executive being then controlled by that party. The bill was reported in the Senate by Mr. Sherman, as Chairman of the Committee on Finance. There was a great deal of remonstrance from the protected classes; for, although they had already got the war taxes on their products repealed, they were quite determined to hold on to the new import duties which had been enacted as compensation for the internal tax. They annoyed Mr. Sherman so much with their importunities that he made some remarks for their benefit in open Senate. He said:

"It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and

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since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high when all these taxes are removed."

It should be remarked that the duties prevailing in 1872 were generally much lower than they are in the present Dingley tariff; yet they were the same schedules which the Tariff Commission of 1882 said ought to be reduced 20 or 25 per cent.

Mr. Sherman went on to rebuke the tariff privateers who were then besieging Congress. He said, in the same speech from which the foregoing words are quoted:

"I have listened with patience, day by day, to the statements of gentlemen who are interested in our domestic productions. I am a firm believer in the general idea of protecting their industries, but I assure them, as I assure their representatives here, that if the present high rates of duties, unexampled in our country, and higher by nearly 50 per cent. than they were in 1861, are maintained on metallic and textile fabrics after we have repealed the very internal taxes which gave rise to them, and after we have substantially given them their raw materials free of duties, we shall have a feeling of dissatisfaction among other interests in the country that will overthrow the whole system, and do greater harm than can possibly be done by a moderate reduction of the present rates of duty."

These words proceeded from a man who was ruled by protectionist ideas and by a protectionist constituency. He was the foremost man of his party, if not the foremost of his time in public position as a financier and economist. He was not a courageous man, however. He was so much under the discipline of the wool-growers of his State that he rarely said anything against the tariff extremists. His speech of 1872 was evidently wrung from him by the strongest sense of duty. The old-fashioned ideas of Clay, Morrill, Sherman, and the other fathers of the so-called "American system" have given place to the idea that protection by tariff ought never to cease, and that it ought never to be lowered if any small producers are engaged in it.

Such extraordinary pretences justify us in asking whether protection was ever necessary in this country. It is a fact of history that the iron industry sprang up in this country not only without the aid of a tariff, but in spite of the hostile legislation of Great Britain. Alexander Hamilton considered that industry well established at the time when he wrote his report on manufactures. Glass-making, tanning, copper-smelting, rope-making, wool-combing, and the manufacture of gloves, boots, and shoes, and of cotton and woollen cloth and sail duck, and of gunpowder and fire-arms, were carried on here in the seventeenth century without tariff protection, were carried on to such an extent as to excite the jealousy and alarm of the mother country. The exportation of iron, both pig and bar, from America to England was so great in the early part of the eighteenth century that the British iron-master sought and obtained protection against it at home, and even procured a prohibition against taking it into the interior ten miles from London. Nobody had the face to ask for a duty on pig-iron in this country until the year 1818. It was not needed then, but it was made part of a log-rolling scheme, and has been continued ever since at various rates ranging from 18 to 58 per cent. *ad valorem*. But if we concede that protection was needed in some cases, they were few in number, and the necessity has passed away in nearly all.

Mr. Sherman's speech, from which we have quoted, is the most philosophical in its reasoning and the most lofty in tone of all those embraced in the volume which he compiled for publication, and on which he intended that his reputation should rest. We extract one more paragraph, in which he deals with taxes on consumption, showing how unjust they are to the wage-workers and the poorer classes, and how they serve to put upon their backs an undue share of the public burdens:

"The income tax expires with the collection of the tax of 1871, which, on personal incomes, is assessed during the present month. The public mind is not yet prepared to apply the key to a genuine revenue reform. A few years of further experience will convince the whole body of our people that a system of national taxes which rests the whole burden of taxation on consumption, and not one cent on property or income, is intrinsically unjust. While the expenses of the national Government are largely caused by the protection of property, it is but right to require property to contribute to their payment. It will not do to say that each person consumes in proportion to his means. This is not true. Every one must see that the consumption of the rich does not bear the same relation to the consumption of the poor as the income of the one does to the wages of the other. As wealth accumulates, this injustice in the fundamental basis of our system will be felt and forced upon the attention of Congress."

THE DANISH ISLANDS TREATY.

The dispatches from Copenhagen describing the defeat of the treaty for the sale of the Danish West India islands to the United States seem to have been edited by Capt. Christmas. They pour the utmost ridicule on the heads of two old men who are members of the upper house of the Danish Parliament. After reading this account, we are compelled to think that members of the Landsthing ought not to be allowed to vote after they reach a certain age, and if they are in poor health. This may be the opinion of Capt. Christmas, but he will hardly be able to bring the American people to that belief, especially those who remember how John Quincy Adams, in his old age, was carried to his place in the House of Representatives on a great occasion. That venerable patriot actually fell upon the floor of the House in a swoon, and died in an adjoining room, and yet he is held in high honor by his countrymen. But, according to these dispatches from Copenhagen to the American press, the two old men who were conveyed to their places to vote according to their convictions of duty to their own country were ridiculous characters, fit only to excite the laughter of gods and men.

May it not be possible that these old men have some such feeling in reference to the sale of the islands as most Americans would have if a foreign country should offer to buy Florida or Alaska from us? Perhaps they have more feeling on the subject than we should have in like case, seeing that Denmark has held those islands longer than we have held anything, longer than we have had an independent existence. Tradition is a strong force among the political elements of nations, and it is especially so in the minds of aged Senators. But the edited dispatches lay stress on the pecuniary aspects of the treaty, as showing how these old men are losing sight of the main chance. Denmark has to meet a bill of expense every year in carrying on the government of the islands. How absurd, then, to vote against a treaty which saddles this bill on another country which is willing to assume it!

The mercantile view is the one which Capt. Christmas would naturally take. He is one of those men, described by the lamented Jacob Sharp, "who don't stir around for nothing." He has a claim, or thinks he has, for a 10 per cent. commission on the purchase price of the islands, and has even threatened to bring a lawsuit against the Danish Government to recover this sum in case payment is refused. Fortunately, that case will not go to trial at present, although the Danish Ministry may ask us to consent to a supplementary treaty extending the time for ratification. Premier Deuntzer said in the debate at Copenhagen that he might do so if we should request him to ask us.

In a recent article on this treaty we said that, even if it were ratified by Denmark, a vote of our House of Representatives would still be necessary to carry it into effect, since it required an appropriation of $5,000,000, and that the House might refuse. The *Tribune*, in an article combating this proposition, said: "Never yet has the House failed to redeem the honor of the nation, and pass the laws necessary to meet treaty obligations, whether it was pleased with the treaty or not." The *Tribune* had forgotten the treaty of reciprocity with Mexico, negotiated during the Administration of President Arthur, ratified by the Senate, and rejected by the House on the 29th of January, 1885. Reference was made to this treaty in President Arthur's message of December 1, 1884, in the following words:

"During the past year the increasing good will between our own Government and that of Mexico has been variously manifested.

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The treaty of commercial reciprocity concluded January 20, 1883, has been ratified, and awaits the necessary tariff legislation of Congress to become effective. This legislation will, I doubt not, be among the first measures to claim your attention."

In pursuance of this recommendation, Mr. Hewitt of New York moved in the House, January 28, 1885, to take up the bill (H. R. 7366) to carry the treaty into effect. The House rejected the motion by yeas 80, nays 157. On the following day the bill was reached in its regular order and was rejected by yeas 105, nays 144. An arrangement was immediately made by President Arthur to extend the time for completing the treaty by one year. President Cleveland referred to the subject in his first annual message, December 8, 1885, thus:

"The lately concluded commercial treaty with Mexico still awaits the stipulated legislation to carry its provisions into effect, for which one year's additional time has been secured by a supplementary article signed in February last and since ratified on both sides. As this convention, so important to the commercial welfare of the two adjoining countries, has been Constitutionally confirmed by the treaty-making branch, I express the hope that legislation needed to make it effective may not be long delayed."

The year passed without action on the part of the House. A second extension of time till May 20, 1887, was arranged for by President Cleveland, but no action was ever taken by the House, and the treaty never went into effect. Now anybody may argue that the House ought to have passed the necessary legislation to make the treaty effective, but can anybody say that the treaty became the law of the land without such legislation? Senator Cullom made an able speech during the last session of Congress in support of the contention that the President and Senate, by the exercise of the treaty-making power, can bind the House in all cases whatsoever. If this is the true interpretation of the Constitution, then appropriations of money and changes in the revenue laws may be made without the consent of the House, and it is improper even to introduce a bill in the House for these purposes, since debating and voting always imply the right to reject as well as to adopt the measure. There was a heated debate in the House on the question of appropriating money to carry into effect the treaty for the purchase of Alaska. The bill was passed, however, not because the House had any doubts of its Constitutional power to refuse the money, but because Russia had rendered us a service in the crisis of the civil war, and it was deemed fitting to acknowledge her friendship in that manner.

With the rejection of the treaty by Denmark, however, this ceases to be a practical question.

"THE NEWER HUMANITIES."

"We must deal in college with the spirits of men; not with their fortunes," said President Woodrow Wilson of Princeton University last Friday, in an inaugural address distinguished both for breadth of philosophic vision and for grace of literary form. He thus takes his stand firmly for the humanistic and against the utilitarian ideal of education. But he is confident that this training of the intelligence is also that which fits a man as well for the winning of fortune and participation in the daily work of the world, as for the disinterested service of scholarship. "Learning is not divided," he insists. "Its kingdom and government are centred, unitary, single. The processes of instruction which fit a large body of young men to serve their generation with powers released and fit for great tasks, ought also to serve as the initial processes by which scholars and investigators are made. They ought to be but the first parts of the method by which the crude force of untrained men is reduced to the expert uses of civilization." Behind this high plea for a humanistic ideal lies the conviction that any lower ideal is less practical and less serviceable. It is salutary to have such a doctrine presented at a time when the latest tendency has been to make the college merely a preparatory stage to the professional school.

That this training is incomplete without the study of at least one ancient language and literature President Wilson is fully convinced; but he also believes that our own language and literature and a comprehensive study of one of the basal sciences are equally indispensable. Very happily, as President Wilson lays down the principles which should guide a liberal education, President Schurman of Cornell presents in his annual report an actual college course which has been worked out under the conditions most favorable for unhampered growth. Cornell started free from any ecclesiastical or narrowly academic tradition, and frankly committed herself to the elective system. Where other colleges hesitated, she assumed the equal value of studies, trusting the student to make for himself a curriculum in which *literæ humaniores* and science should be each duly regarded. Accordingly, the merits and defects of the elective system have had every chance to develop, and the average course at Cornell may be assumed to represent faithfully, if not the education which the American collegian should have, at least that which he prefers.

It is encouraging and a little surprising to find that he prefers very much the kind of course which President Wilson so eloquently advocates—that is, an education which prefers, broadly speaking, the humanities to the scientific and more utilitarian studies. The class of 1901 gave a tenth of its working time to the ancient languages, more than a third to the modern languages, upward of a fifth to history and politics, a tenth to philosophy, leaving one-fifth to natural sciences and mathematics. With all reserves for the misleading nature of these percentages, which undoubtedly cover many eccentric individual cases, there is no avoiding the inference that the preference of the American collegian is as markedly as ever for the humanities over the sciences—only, as President Schurman aptly observes, for the "newer humanities" rather than for the old; and it would be fair to add that students everywhere, and the more radical educators, see in the Cornell course, with its preponderance of modern languages and history, the ideal towards which they are reaching. For them the phrase "the newer humanities" will be a rallying cry.

But the education in the "newer humanities" must be considered not only in its present condition, but in its remoter effects, especially in its reaction upon the schools. For some years past about a third of the students admitted to the Cornell College of Arts have offered both Greek and Latin for admission, as against one-half who offered Latin, with either French or German. Yet, while all but an insignificant fraction of the Cornell freshmen have prepared for college in at least one ancient language, only one-tenth of the working time of the four collegiate years (less than a semester for each student) is given to Latin and Greek. It is evident that the schools which prepare for Cornell University will tend to teach the subjects that their students mean to continue in college, and the logical outcome would be an education which, from beginning to end, preferred the "newer humanities." In such a course Latin would assume a wholly minor position, while Greek would virtually disappear. Is the American college willing to see the old humanities put upon the basis of, say, Sanskrit, fluxions, or spectrum analysis?

Princeton for one is not, and it would be pleasant, did space permit, to reprint President Wilson's tribute to the liberating effect of literatures so unlike our own—so superior in poise and serenity. But this is not the place to fight again the never-ending battle of the ancients and moderns. It is sufficient to have pointed out that the liberal education of to-day shows no sign of rejecting the humanities in favor of natural science, and it may be well to recall that in Dante, Shakspere, Milton, Molière, Goethe, the student has not only a tolerable substitute for the ancient classics, but has, though at second hand and very partially, the ancient classics themselves, from whom the great moderns derived their chief inspiration. It is conceivable that Montaigne might mean to a modern what Cicero did to Montaigne. And yet there is always danger that the substitutes for the classics

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may be cheap substitutes—not Montaigne for Cicero, but a smattering of De Quincey; not Molière for Aristophanes, but trivial plays of Scribe and Sardou; not Shakspere for Sophocles, but miracle-plays and moralities. This is the besetting peril of the new education. For this reason, while frankly admitting that the day is with the new humanities, we believe that the success of the new departure is bound up with the retention of the great culture language, Latin. It is needed as a standard of comparison, to steady the vision of literatures that are still perplexingly near us. A new education that does not give Latin a prominent position will infallibly fall short of a liberal education.

ALFRED DE VIGNY.

PARIS, October 8, 1902.

Fashion rules even in intellectual matters. For some mysterious reason, impossible to analyze, a poet who for a very long time was much neglected and almost forgotten, Alfred de Vigny, has again come to the front and become the subject of a sort of posthumous admiration. M. Léon Séché has just given us a volume of nearly four hundred octavo pages with this long title: 'Alfred de Vigny and his Time, 1797-1863: His Maternal Origin, his Loves, his Literary Friendships, his Political Ideas, his Religion, with New and hitherto Unpublished Documents.' It is illustrated with a portrait of Alfred de Vigny, from a lithograph by Devéria; a portrait of the famous actress, Madame Dorval, with whom Vigny was in love for six years; and portraits of certain literary ladies of his time—Delphine Gay, Madame Desbordes-Valmore, a poetess who has also been lately treated to a sort of resurrection.

I confess to have been somewhat disappointed in M. Séché's work. I have found in it many documents of secondary value, and some which might as well have remained inedited. Vigny, poet and novelist, has already been the subject of exhaustive critical essays, and there is not much worth remembering or noticing in the "private man." "Restait," says M. Séché, "l'homme privé, en robe de chambre et en pantoufles." Montaigne has said that we should not "guetter les grandes hommes aux petites choses." Sainte-Beuve, it is quite true, created a method of criticism which constantly goes from the work to the worker, and which searches the inner life of the writer for the stimulants of his originality and his genius. He applied this method in his 'Port Royal' and in his famous "Lundis," a series which can be read a hundred times, and always to advantage. But it requires the skill of a Sainte-Beuve to use his method, which in other hands becomes tedious by the multiplicity of documents, many of which throw no light on the subject in view.

Taine modified Sainte-Beuve's procedure without changing its character; he places the writer in what he calls his *milieu*, and studies the influence of this environment, organic and inorganic, on the development of the writer's genius. This method has been made even more systematic by Taine's followers; and in the interesting collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" we see it carried *ad absurdum*, in so far as every criticism of the writer is written, so to speak, in slices, and the subject, interesting as it may be, is never taken as a whole. I must admit my preference for Sainte-Beuve, who mixes up artfully biography and literary criticism, who follows the development of a writer without dividing systematically the influences which race, time, history, and personal accidents have had upon him. Let us take, for example, since I am speaking of Alfred de Vigny, M. Paléologue's volume on this poet, which appeared in the collection of "Grands Écrivains Français." The summary of the different chapters will explain what I have just said: "Years of Youth and of Production," "The Soul and the Talent," "Conception of Life," "Pessimism," "Last Years," "The Man and the Work." This little volume is an excellent study, more artistic than many in the same collection. The author has not carried to excess the system of critical classification adopted generally in the collection; he has not given undue importance to many details which are found in M. Séché's large volume, but has applied himself chiefly to analyzing the character of Alfred de Vigny's poetical work. He has done it with a grace and delicacy which deserve much praise.

Alfred de Vigny was, in a sense, a creator: he introduced philosophy into the domain of poetry. Till 1836, when Lamartine published 'Jocelyn,' the poets did not leave the domain of the ode, the ballad, the drama. In 1822, long before Victor Hugo became a Romantic, Alfred de Vigny announced that he would undertake to show, in a series of small poems, "the migrations of the human soul through the ages." In one of his prefaces he says: "The only merit which has never been denied to these compositions is that of having been the first in France in which a philosophical thought was put on the scene in an epic or dramatic form." This pretension is not unfounded, and M. Paléologue can justly call Alfred de Vigny the creator of philosophical poetry in France.

Alfred de Vigny left to M. Louis Ratisbonne, his literary executor (who died only three years ago), all his manuscripts, and among others as many as eighty *cahiers*, in which the poet kept a diary during forty years. By Vigny's orders these portfolios were all destroyed; but several people had had access to them, and, among others, M. Paléologue and M. Léon Séché. A few fragments were even published in 1867, under the title of 'Journal of a Poet,' by M. Ratisbonne. M. Bégis, a collector of autographs, has communicated to M. Séché the letters written by Alfred de Vigny to Madame Dorval, and these letters are printed in his volume. The episode of their relations is the part of M. Séché's volume which will be read with most curiosity. The passion of Vigny for this great actress was but an incident in his life, but it throws much light upon the character of the poet. He was essentially a dreamer; he lived in the highest sphere of thought, almost always in solitude; and when he was by circumstances put in contact with realities, he saw them still through a veil. Madame Dorval became for a time his idol; but the idol whom he adored was very unlike the real woman. She became for a time his muse, but she never meant to live long on Parnassus.

M. Séché gives us the history of the youth of Marie Dorval. She was born in 1798, and was the child of two provincial dramatic artists; she was made to appear on the stage as a child, and followed her parents from Lorient to Strasbourg. In going through Paris she heard Talma in "Hamlet," and he made a great impression on her. She made her début in Paris in 1818, but became famous only in 1822, when she played in a drama called "Trente Ans, ou la Vie d'un Joueur." The great days of the Romantic drama were approaching. Alfred de Vigny had made his reputation in his lyrical poems, especially in "Éloa," which Théophile Gautier pronounced "the most perfect in our literature"; he had written an historical novel, 'Cinq-Mars,' in which he took great liberties with history, but which is a very living and dramatic picture of the time of Louis XIII. It was probably this novel which gave him the idea of writing dramas for the stage. He first tried his hand on a translation in verse of "Othello." Perhaps he was prompted to make this attempt by Lydia Bunbury, whom he married in 1828. "Othello" was represented at the French Theatre on the 29th of October, 1829. It was a great event; Classicists and Romantics fought a battle which ended in the victory of the Romantic school. Vigny's translation is timid; it is not perfect; but Heine wrote that "in this work M. de Vigny has gone more deeply than any of his predecessors into the genius of Shakspere." "Othello" was followed by "La Maréchale d'Ancre," the wife of Concini, which was played at the Odéon on July 25, 1831.

But Vigny's dramatic triumph was a play founded on the history of the unfortunate Chatterton. The part of Kitty Bell, who loved Chatterton, was played by Marie Dorval. She was, *par excellence*, the Romantic actress, intensely realistic, and the opposite of Mademoiselle Mars, who represented at the time the Classic school and the traditions of the French comedy. Alfred de Vigny fell in love with his interpreter. The contrast between them was very great. Vigny was very shy, though very proud; he possessed extreme sensibility, but much reserve. Madame Dorval was animated, expansive, and, let us say frankly, vulgar; but it was not without reason that the ancients represented Love as blind. Vigny paid court to Madame Dorval as he would have paid it to a queen. Has not Pascal said: "The longer the way in love, the more pleasure is felt by a delicate mind"? Madame Dorval was not so Platonic. She lost patience, after two years of courtship; and one fine evening she said to her timid suitor: "Well, M. de Vigny, don't you think it is time you should ask me to marry you?" Their liaison lasted about four years, and during this period Vigny wrote to his idol many letters which are now brought to light, and which had better not have been published. There remain some which, fortunately, have not been printed, but which are alluded to by M. Séché, and which, it seems, show to what degree of folly a lover can attain.

Mme. Dorval soon became tired of Vigny, and she gave him several rivals, one of them taken from the stage, where he afterwards became famous in the popular drama. She deceived Vigny even at the time when she was playing the part of Kitty Bell in Chatterton. After he had lost his

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mistress, Vigny fell into a state of profound discouragement and pessimism. For a moment he thought that politics would be a distraction; he ran as Deputy after the Revolution of 1848, but was defeated. He hoped under the Empire to enter the Senate, but was not appointed. He became very misanthropic and religious, but his religion was austere and savored of Jansenism. He ended his life in a proud solitude, and died on September 17, 1863, from a cancer which made his last years a long agony.

Correspondence.

THE NEW RECIPROCITY TREATY WITH NEWFOUNDLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The news reached us to-day that Sir Robert Bond, the Premier of Newfoundland, has made a preliminary arrangement with the American Government, mainly on the lines of the Blaine-Bond treaty of 1900. It is a triumph for our Premier, and his unwearied perseverance deserves success. It will be remembered that Sir John A. Macdonald killed the former treaty just after its conclusion. It was a clever, unscrupulous political trick. The Canadian Premier, on the eve of an election, wanted the support of Nova Scotia and the Maritime Provinces, the portion of the Dominion most keenly interested in the fisheries, so he used his powerful influence with the Imperial Government to destroy Sir Robert Bond's work. Nothing ever angered Newfoundland against Canada so much as this nefarious attack on her rights as an independent colony. Sir John, however, could do as he liked with the British Ministry.

While we are still a long way from an actual treaty, the Senate having yet to be dealt with, the chances are strongly in favor of the confirmation of the Blaine-Bond treaty. To many, no doubt, one of the most attractive points about the new arrangement will be the hit at Canada. The real and solid basis for the treaty, however, is the mutual advantage to both Newfoundland and the States. Just at present the American fishermen have to bear a heavy burden, in license money, light dues, etc. A charge of $350 to $400 each season on a little schooner of about one hundred tons is a tremendous tax. Newfoundland has the whip hand, also, in the supply of bait, ice, transhipment supplies, etc. It is the nearest point to the fishing grounds, and far away the most convenient and profitable basis for carrying on the fishery. On the other hand, unlike Canada, she is not a rival; she does not compete either in manufactures or in agricultural produce. For over two centuries there has been a long, friendly intercourse between the two countries.

Looking at the subject in a plain, practical, common-sense way, one can see the reasonableness of allowing a great fish-producing country like our island to send its supply of food to its natural market, the great republic with its seventy millions, and the right of your people to obtain free food and untaxed fish. I have argued out the question already in former communications. The effect of the new treaty in Newfoundland will also be very beneficial. It will stimulate a fresh fish trade, now in its infancy. The supply of the finest salmon, lobster, turbot, caplin, herring, etc., is almost unlimited, and with cold storage these can all be sent in perfect condition to Boston and New York. The new situation will probably invite American enterprise for the exploitation of Newfoundland's immense mineral resources and the handling of fresh fish. Every reasonable man can see that the two countries will benefit by a free mutual exchange of their natural products, and that the breaking down of the absurd barriers of protection in this small way may have further beneficial results.

D. W. Prowse.

St. John's, October 18, 1902.

CONGRESSIONAL REPRESENTATION IN SOUTH DAKOTA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are two States in the Union to which have been apportioned more than one Representative in Congress, and which elect them by a general ticket. These States are Washington and South Dakota. Since the admission of South Dakota into the Union in 1889, that State has been entitled to two Federal Representatives, but at no time during that period has the commonwealth been divided into Congressional districts. Prior to 1842, the States elected their Congressmen as the several Legislatures thereof determined, sometimes by a general ticket throughout the State, again by districts, or by the State Legislature. The political complexion of the Legislature frequently determined the mode, and altered it oftentimes accordingly. But in 1842 the control of elections for Representatives to Congress was taken from the States, and a Federal Law enacted by Congress. That famous act declared: "That in every case where a State is entitled to more than one Representative, the number to which such State shall be entitled under this apportionment shall be elected by districts composed of contiguous territory, equal in number to the number of Representatives to which the said State may be entitled, no one district electing more than one Representative." Much opposition on the ground of unconstitutionality was raised against this law by New York and other States at that time. New Hampshire refused to accept and be governed by it until 1846. Since its enactment, the law has been operative, and has been regularly reaffirmed by all the various apportionment acts of Congress.

This Federal law is binding upon all States alike; were it not so, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois might have a solid Republican representation in Congress to-day. The question then arises: Why is not this wise provision in force as regards South Dakota? At first thought it might seem that the number of Representatives apportioned to South Dakota is so small as to furnish the excuse. But there are six other States with but two Representatives which nevertheless elect by districts. These States are Colorado, Florida, New Hampshire, Oregon, Rhode Island, and Vermont. States have been allowed to elect their Congressmen by general ticket when a new apportionment law has reduced their number of Representatives, and when a short period of time does not conveniently permit the assembling of the Legislature for the purpose of redistricting the State. If the new census increases the number of Representatives to which a State is entitled, that State may, when the Legislature neglects to redistrict, elect the additional Congressmen at large. But neither of these provisions affects the South Dakota situation, as its number of Representatives has never been increased nor lessened.

In the year 1890, during the early days of the first session of the State Legislature in South Dakota, the Senate introduced "A Bill for an Act to Provide for the Election of Representatives to Congress by Districts." The House committee, on the 18th of February, recommended that the bill be "indefinitely postponed," and it was. There are prospects that the question will be again considered at the next session of the Legislature.

The South Dakota deviation from the Federal law is frequently accounted for by the topography, varied interests, and Indian reservations in the State. The State may properly be said to be divided into three parts. East of the Missouri River are forty-four counties, the citizens of which are extensively engaged in agricultural pursuits. The population of this region is 341,753. Nine counties west of the river are organized, and extend along the western border of the State and eastward through the centre. In the Black Hills region of the west, mining is extensively carried on; gold is found there in such paying quantities as to make the State rank third in the Union for the output of this metal. The people in these nine counties number but 43,774. The remainder of the State, comprising most of the region immediately west of the river, consists of fifteen unorganized counties, together with two strips not included in any county. Most of this territory consists of Indian reservations. Great tracts of it are employed in cattle-raising. The whites are engaged in herding cattle and sheep on the ranches, where the native grass possesses as good fattening qualities as grain. The entire population of this third region of the State, with the Indian reservations, numbers but 16,043.

This uneven population and varied employment renders the task of districting the State especially difficult. The counties of the Black Hills regions would need to be joined with a part of the State east of the Missouri River. That district might then be said to resemble a dumb-bell, with the unorganized counties on each side of the handle, joining people of diverse occupations. There are no railroads crossing the Missouri in this State, and, consequently, the territory of the western district would be completely severed; geographically it might be joined, but socially and commercially it would be anything but compact. The need of a railroad through the State, as a means of developing the natural resources, is pressing. South Dakota is the only State in the Union not crossed from east to west by a railroad. Rumors are afloat that the Missouri will soon be bridged. But this improvement is not so imperative now as it would be if the State were districted, as indicated above. At present the State is a unit in all its elections. Dissatisfaction would surely prevail in the western district formed as above. The mining interests and the ranchmen would fail to agree. There would be a continual scramble for office between these disjointed parts of the one district. As now tacitly agreed to, the older

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part of the State is given the Senators and the newer sections the Representatives, and thus harmony is maintained throughout the commonwealth.

South Dakota has been so long without Congressional districts that many leaders in the State have concluded that the question of districting rests entirely with the State. They are supported in this view by section 1, article xix, of the State Constitution, which was framed at Sioux Falls in September, 1885, and adopted by the Territory in 1889 when it became a State. The reading of that instrument is: "Until otherwise provided by law, the members of the House of Representatives of the United States apportioned to this State shall be elected by the State at large." Whatever may be said about the failure to form Congressional districts in South Dakota, the omission should all be charged up to Congress. That body acts on the question of eligibility of its own members, and, if not properly elected, the House should refuse them seats in the United States Congress. But both parties, when in a majority in the House of Representatives, have seated the two Representatives from South Dakota, although they were not elected by districts in accordance with the national law of 1842.

The State of Washington since 1892 has been allowed to elect its two Congressmen at large. The new census permits that commonwealth to elect three, and at the approaching election each voter in the State will be allowed to vote for three Congressmen. It is understood that Washington will be districted for the first time by the Legislature which will be convened immediately after the fall election.

ELMER C. GRIFFITH.

YANKTON COLLEGE, S. D., October 20, 1902.

CHRIST IN 'THE SCARLET LETTER.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to the writer that in Mr. George E. Woodberry's 'Nathaniel Hawthorne' we may fairly be said to have the most adequately interpretative word yet uttered concerning the work of America's great romancer. But, this being granted, it yet remains true that Mr. Woodberry is a Massachusetts man, and that the fact has to a certain extent colored his estimate of 'The Scarlet Letter.' He says:

"In the scheme of Puritan thought . . . . the atonement of Christ is the perpetual miracle whereby salvation comes not only hereafter, but in the holier life led here by grace. There is no Christ in this book. . . . Is it too much to suggest that, in ignoring . . . the atonement of Christ, and the work of the Spirit in men's hearts, the better part of Puritanism has been left out, and the whole life of the soul distorted?"

Now the circumstance noted by Mr. Woodberry that there is no Christ in the 'Scarlet Letter,' only makes the story (in the judgment of the writer) the more thoroughly and intimately Puritan. Looked at closely, Puritanism itself was without Christ. It was in fact, whatever it may have been in scheme, a reinauguration of Judaism—of the Old Testament. Its sermons, its writings, its laws, and its conduct, all were of the dispensation of Moses. Christ came into New England only in so far as Roger Williams came into it, for with the latter there came that largeness and tolerance which were essential marks of Christ. Indeed, Williams at the time of his controversy with John Cotton found it necessary to point out that, were Christ then to set foot in Massachusetts, he (so thoroughly was New England Judaized) would in all probability be banished or put to death.

But it is the opinion of the writer that the real reason there is no Christ in 'The Scarlet Letter' is not so much that Puritanism was without Christ as that Christ (in the sense of the tenets of dogmatic Christianity) is not essential to the purposes of the book. The story sets out to portray the effects of guilt upon the human soul, and these effects—supervening as they do under conditions almost purely naturalistic—serve to impress the truth that guilt (Christianity or no Christianity) is a thing real, terrible, and escapable (in so far as it is escapable at all) only in one way—through confession. IRVING B. RICHMAN.

MUSCATINE, IOWA, October 17, 1902.

Notes.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'Bookbinders and their Craft,' by Miss S. T. Prideaux, in a limited edition, and 'A Literary History of Persia from the Earliest Times until Firdawsi,' by Edward G. Brown, lecturer in Persian at the University of Cambridge.

The 'Poems You Ought to Know,' which have been running for some time in the Chicago *Tribune*, are being gathered into a book with the imprint of the Jamieson-Higgins Co., of that city.

The 'History of John Decastro' and his brother Bat, commonly called Old Crab, is to be reprinted by the Irwin Press of Pittsburgh, Pa., nearly a century after its first appearance in London and Boston in 1815.

The Century Company adds to its pretty series of booklets in Elzevir form Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' with an introduction from the 'Victorian Poets' of E. C. Stedman; 'Selections from the Thoughts of Pascal,' translated by Benjamin E. Smith; Sheridan's 'The Rivals,' with an introduction from the Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson. These little volumes are bound in stamped leather and contain each a portrait of its author.

A very pretty rubricated title-page has been devised by Messrs. Scribner for a handy edition of Stevenson's 'An Inland Voyage'; the cover is less well conceived. The letterpress is bold and handsome, and a few photographs of scenery and buildings, by James B. Carrington, enhance the value of the text.

In the decoration accorded by Dodd, Mead & Co. to their new edition of Mr. Mabie's 'Under the Trees,' there is also a good title-page, with figures, and several plates in the same vein, by C. L. Hinton, whose work is graceful if not strong. The greenish border designs—continuous, not repetitious—from the same hand, appear to us an excess of illustration. They cast, if we may pervert the poet a little, the author's thought in a green shade.

Mr. Mabie furnishes an introduction for 'A Book of Old English Ballads, with an Accompaniment of Decorative Drawings,' by George Wharton Edwards; and as he has something to say about the neglect of chronological arrangement, he seems to have had some hand in the selection. This opens with "Chevy Chace," and includes "King Cophetua and the Beggar Maid," "Barbara Allen," three of the Robin Hood series, "The Twa Corbies," "The Nut-Brown Maid," "Sir Patrick Spens," with twice as many more. Some of Mr. Wharton's headpieces are felicitous and truly decorative; the full-page pen-drawings, on the contrary, are ineffectual, and contrast unfortunately with the print of the ballads themselves. The defect extends to the cover in red and green.

The introduction to Mr. Joseph B. Gilder's 'The American Idea as Expounded by American Statesmen' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is from the pen of Mr. Carnegie. It takes a hopeful view of our democracy in spite of what he hopes is the temporary aberration from American first principles since "our late President was swept, against his own ardent wish and better judgment, into a departure from the policy of the Fathers of the Republic." Mr. McKinley's last speech is one of the seventeen documents in this collection, beginning with the Declaration of Independence. Washington, John Quincy Adams (in "the Monroe Doctrine"), Lincoln, Webster, Lowell on Democracy, Cleveland, Hoar on free speech, are some of the historic expounders here brought together.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. have launched a series of 16mo reprints, "The Commonwealth Library," inexpensively got up, but clear of print, including thus far the Lewis and Clark already noticed, in three volumes, and now Alexander Mackenzie's 'Voyages from Montreal to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans (1789 and 1793),' in two volumes, with a portrait of the author, and Matthew Arnold's 'Literature and Dogma,' also with a portrait.

The "Little Masterpieces of Science" published by Doubleday, Page & Co. under the editorship of Mr. George Iles form a set of six pocket volumes in plain attire, labelled respectively 'Mind,' 'Explorers,' 'The Naturalist,' 'Skies and Earth' (astronomy and geology), 'Health and Healing,' and 'Invention and Discovery.' The general title proves to be a misnomer, for while there are numerous extracts from the writings of well-known scientists of high and sometimes of the first order, none of these deserves the style of "masterpiece," as few fragments could. But mixed up with these textual quotations we have much popularizing of science in articles by Mr. Iles himself and by others possessed of greater scientific training, but still not first-hand authorities. The series will be useful, but it is too pretentious.

Without commenting on them in detail, we can recommend to teachers both Prof. J. M. Hart's 'Essentials of Prose Composition' (Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro.) and the third book of Gardiner, Kittredge and Arnold's 'The Mother Tongue: Elements of English Composition' (Boston: Ginn & Co.). Each abounds in illustrations of style, which are given more at length in the second and larger work. Professor Hart again displays his fondness for Hawthorne as an exemplar. The triple authors add supplementary exercises and exhibitions of common errors, with a glance at punctuation and a chapter on English prosody.

Few recent diplomatic episodes have caused more discussion than the alliance of Italy with Prussia before and during the

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war of 1866. Many attempts have been made to convict the Italian Government, and especially its head, Gen. La Marmora, of lack of faith towards Prussia. The negotiations have just been reviewed from first to last in Senator Luigi Chiala's 'Ancora un Po' Più di Luce sugli Eventi Politici e Militari dell' Anno 1866' (Florence: Barbèra), a work which seems to exhaust the subject. Written with Senator Chiala's characteristic frankness, it presents many important inedited letters, besides his inside knowledge of the transactions, and the impressions which his intimacy with many of the leading Italian public men enabled him to form at first hand. He has effectually silenced Bernhardi and other accusers, and he has confirmed Bismarck's statement that Italy behaved loyally in all her dealings with Prussia. Incidentally, the book is indispensable for any one who wishes to understand the diplomacy which made Prussia mistress of Central Europe and undermined Napoleon III.

The *Annals* of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, volume 38, is devoted to a "Discussion of Variable Stars in the cluster ω Centauri," by Solon I. Bailey. This is the first portion of an elaborate study of variable stars in clusters undertaken by Professor Bailey. In all, 19,050 stars have been examined, and the area covered by the examination is 5.8 square degrees. The area in which variables were actually found, however, was only 1.4 square degrees, and the remarkable announcement is made that, in a region covering only one thirty-thousandth part of the whole sky, have been found more than five hundred variables, nearly as many as are known to exist in the remaining region. It also appears that in one cluster, Messier 3, one star in seven is variable, while in other clusters there is only one in five hundred. The volume is made up of several chapters in which are described the sequences of comparison stars, observations of the variables, the elements of the variables, and a detailed study of four variables. There are numerous reproductions of photographs of clusters showing variables, and six plates showing light curves.

The diamond and carbon product of Bahia is decreasing, writes H. W. Furniss in the Consular Reports for October, notwithstanding fabulous wealth awaits development—simply from lack of intelligence. "In my trip, which included the greater part of the diamond section, ... I could not find or hear of a person or company working with modern machinery or tools or using modern methods." The absence in Berlin of that cloud of dusty smoke so frequently observed in our cities is due to three facts, according to Consul-General Mason: "The preponderant use of coke and briquettes, which are practically smokeless; the skilful scientific construction of boiler furnaces and chimneys; and, finally, the high standard of skill that is taught and enforced among firemen who stoke furnaces with coal for steam and manufacturing purposes. It is not every strapping laborer who can shovel coal who is permitted to stoke a boiler furnace in this country. Before he can assume such a charge he must be taught the theory and practice of economical, scientific firing, by which the coal is distributed in such manner and quantity over the grate surface as to secure the most perfect combustion of its volatile elements."

In the *Geographical Journal* for October is an account by Oscar Neumann of his journey through southern Ethiopia to the Sudan, one of the most interesting parts of Africa yet to be explored. In the course of it he passed through five different zoölogical regions and "was able to collect more than 1,000 specimens of mammals belonging to about 140 different species," of which sixteen are new. This is the greatest zoölogical collection which has ever come to Europe from Africa at one time. He found a curious system of fortification prevailing in certain South Ethiopian kingdoms. "Where the countries are not bounded by high mountain chains, difficult to cross, they are surrounded by deep ditches and strong fences, which can only be passed by means of a guarded gate." In the capital of one of these kingdoms there was a Thursday market which "is visited by nearly twenty to thirty thousand persons." The address of Sir T. H. Holdich at the Belfast meeting of the British Association on "Some Geographical Problems" was a strong plea for better geographical education in England. It needed the bitter experience of the South African war to teach English administrators and English generals what the United States, Germany, Russia, and France have long known and acted upon, that "the cheapest, the quickest, the surest, indeed, the only satisfactory method of regulating the progression of public works, the development of commerce, the proper recognition of the frontier boundaries, the administration of justice, and the military control of a large and growing colony, or of a long stretch of military frontier, is to be armed with a perfect summary of what that country contains in the shape of a geographical map." He stated that, in order to secure a "definite understanding about the meaning of geographical terms," the Royal Geographical Society had in preparation a geographical dictionary, and he expressed the wish that there might be "homogeneity in spelling." An illustration of the need of this is to be found in this number of the *Journal*. In the text the capital of Abyssinia is always Adis Abeba, on the map it is Addis Abbaba.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 9, are on the earthquake in Guatemala on April 18, 1902, by Dr. Karl Sapper, and on the place names of the Eskimo of Smith's Sound, by Dr. Robert Stein, with an accompanying map. Stein embodies the results of his investigations during a two years' residence in the Sound region. His linguistic studies have led him to the conclusion that the Eskimo have not long, relatively, inhabited the Greenland coast, but are emigrants from the west. Through increase of intercourse with the world, they are fast losing their old traditions and folk-lore, some of which, in the form of ballads, he has collected. He praises the English and American explorers for their brilliant achievements, but adds that, "from the lack of phonetic analysis," they have written the Eskimo place names in a manner which he characterizes as "ein wahrer Gräuel."

Dr. Karl Dziatzko, head librarian of the University of Göttingen, has recently extensively investigated the question whether, in the ancient world of literature, there existed anything like copyright. The problem was forced upon his attention by the recent large papyrus finds, there being already three hundred of these containing portions of Homer alone. The supplement to the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 193, reporting on these researches, states that, as might have been expected, no such right existed in the ancient world on anything like the scale of the modern. No law has been found protecting the rights of the writer, no matter in which of the two ways his books were multiplied, by the book-trader or by private enterprise. Everybody could have copies of any work prepared at his own pleasure. One restriction, however, was discovered, to the effect that he who, against an author's will, was the first to offer a book for sale, could be subjected to the process "injuriarum actio." But, after copies had once been made and circulated, then the special right of the author came to an end. Sometimes an author would make changes in his books in order to render it impossible for dealers to sell their unrevised copies. Another peculiarity of ancient publication methods was the fact that such a thing as the circulation of a writing privately, or, as the Germans say, as "manuscript," was unknown. Even works written for private circles at once became public property—which worked mischief to certain authors under the tyranny of several Roman Emperors.

The issue and continued maintenance of the *Japan Register*, a bi-lingual magazine published semi-monthly in Tokio, which has reached its third volume, recalls attention to the important question whether the Japanese—to say nothing of the Chinese—will ever give up their ideographic writing and adopt Romaji, or Roman script. The distinguished barrister-at-law, Mr. Masujima, conducts the *Japan Register*, which, in English and Sinico-Japanese (that is, in mixed Chinese square character and the *kana* script), discusses events and themes of contemporaneous interest most congenial to literary and scholarly people. There is certainly no sign that the Japanese will give up their ideographs within this present century, at least. In adopting Occidental civilization, they have put their Sinico-Japanese style and script to a severe test which has been most creditably borne. Called to express to an Oriental people the thoughts elaborated by European minds during many centuries, it has shown aptitudes undreamed of. It is not only an instrument of enormous merits, enabling a Japanese to express every shade of meaning from the columns of a European newspaper, but its use during more than fifty years' contact with the modern West has demonstrated the enormous capabilities of the Japanese language. "The existing written language of Japan is immensely superior to colloquial Japanese as a terse and precise instrument of thought," because to the native phonetic, or rather syllabic, script and "hooks and eyes" of speech it joins the Chinese ideographs, which are almost matchless for the tone and shadings of thought. The Japanese portion of Mr. Masujima's *Register* shows how much can be done in the simplification of the written style and in blending the classical and the colloquial, which are now the particular and pressing problems to be solved. The articles, editorials, critiques, and translations are of excellent selection and proportion. (The publica-

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tion office is No. 14 Yamashita, Cho, Yokohama.)

One of the chief purposes in the organization of the International Association of Academies of Sciences, effected about two years ago, was to furnish a medium through which an international exchange of manuscripts for scholarly research could be brought about. The Royal Academy of Sciences in Madrid, although invited to membership in the new association, did not respond, and important literary documents from Spain are accordingly still almost inaccessible to foreigners. Now, however, the Government has itself taken steps to meet the wishes of scholars in this regard, and has recently issued to all of the great libraries of Spain a detailed set of rules and regulations controlling such an exchange of literary treasures with foreign countries. These make it possible for scholars of other lands to secure any manuscripts and other documents from Spanish collections save those of exceptional value; but this permission is confined to countries which extend similar courtesies to Spanish scholars, and the borrower is also compelled to make a money deposit, the amount of which is to be determined by the director of the library from which the loan is made.

We have received from Messrs. C. F. Libbie & Co., Boston, the catalogue of a remarkable collection of books in American genealogy and New England history which on November 11 and following will be sold for the estate of our old associate, the late William H. Whitmore. Of the nearly three thousand items, which include books, pamphlets, maps, broadsides, and historical portraits and views, we can now enumerate only the original manuscript passenger-list, containing forty-one names, of the *Speedwell*, endorsed by Gov. Endicott: "These were Landed in Boston in N. E. the 27th of ye 6 moneth 1656, J. E."; a great number of New England chap books, twenty-nine editions of "Mother Goose," including the earlier and rarer issues (one of Mr. Whitmore's numerous diversions); and a series of mezzotints by the eighteenth-century engraver Pelham, who is said to have been the first artist and engraver in America and one of Copley's masters. Genealogies predominate, but the collection of Bostoniana is of exceptional richness, as might have been expected from a leading founder of the Bostonian Society.

—It is a far call from Chevy Chace to Lexington, from Harry Hotspur to the officer whom Halleck, by a curious slip, called a "younger son," a "Major of Dragoons"; from the Percy of romance to the Percy of the days of George III. The letters of this latter, rightly named Hugh, Earl Percy, written in America between April, 1774, and November, 1776, have lately been published by Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston. The volume is beautifully printed, perhaps even too much so, since the result is a high price for a thin book of eighty pages of letters which, though interesting, are by no means of great importance. They are carefully edited by Charles K. Bolton, Librarian of the Boston Athenæum. The old Duke of Northumberland, father of the writer, was a strong opponent of the Ministry and its measures and treatment of the American Colonies. His son, the writer, was, above all, a soldier devoted to his profession and desirous of success and advancement in it. The letters relate principally to affairs of the time, but it is pleasant in one of the earliest to find a tribute to the great charm of New England independent of all time. On July 27, 1774, Percy writes: "With regard to the climate, it is ten times more inconstant than in England." His admiration of the country about Boston is expressed in words strong enough to satisfy the most devoted friend of her Park system of to-day. His views with regard to public men and measures are those of an intelligent but prejudiced young aristocrat. He could see no good in the leaders of American sentiment or in the people in general: "They have not the least Idea of either Religion or Morality." On April 20, 1775, after meeting the Rebels, he had learned that "whoever looks upon them as an irregular mob, will find himself much mistaken." The letters contain short accounts of the day of Lexington and Concord, and of the battles of Bunker Hill, Long Island, and White Plains, in all of which, except Bunker Hill, Percy took an active part. The letters were well worth printing, though their interest is largely due to the personality of the writer.

—The reverence which is felt for the memory of Father Marquette has of late years been illustrated in many ways. Sculpture has been invoked to commemorate his services, and his deeds are thus recorded in national centres like Washington and Chicago. His daring and sincerity have also been recalled in many public addresses. While Michigan and Wisconsin seem to owe a special debt of gratitude, the sense of recognition is widespread among other States of the Middle West, and may be expected to appear at any time. Under these circumstances, the public is likely to welcome the short biographical sketch entitled 'Father Marquette,' that has recently been published by Mr. R. G. Thwaites (Appletons). It is the work of one who has long been perfectly familiar with the geographical explorations and the missionary services of the Jesuits, besides having shown a special interest in the career of Marquette. A sufficient account of the Indians, the Jesuits, and Marquette's companions is given, but the book is a real biography, and centres in the deeds of the Father himself. As between Marquette and Joliet, Mr. Thwaites finds it impossible to do more than divide the praise of discovering the Mississippi; but he will not admit that the merits of the priest fall below those of the civilian. Marquette, too, it was who left the record. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen. Among others is the reputed portrait that was discovered in Montreal five years ago. If we ever had any doubt in the matter, we must now express a strong individual opinion against the authenticity of this picture. An account of its discovery will be found in volume 71 of the 'Jesuit Relations' (p. 400). In conclusion, we may quote Mr. Thwaites's final estimate of Marquette: "Others of his order, in America, were doubtless greater than he, suffered more acutely, spent more years in the service; but popular imagination in America has perhaps more generally centred upon the hero of this tale than upon any of his fellows. He was, in truth, a man of action as well as of ideas; a true explorer as well as a scholastic; a rare linguist; a preacher of undoubted capacity; gifted with unusual powers of mastery over the minds of fierce savages; and his saintly character will long remain an inspiration to men of every creed and calling."

—We have received a reprint of Mr. Hubert Hall's 'Court Life under the Plantagenets' (Dutton), which was originally published in London twelve years ago. In some ways this book reminds one of 'The Merchant and the Friar,' by Sir Francis Palgrave, wherein Marco Polo is brought to England and made to converse with Roger Bacon on topics of public interest. Mr. Hall's 'Court Life' is less conversational than the 'Merchant and the Friar,' but in both cases an attempt is made to render popular the study of mediæval life. The English Constitution, under several of its aspects, is also a subject which both books have in common, although the action of the one is laid in the twelfth century and that of the other in the thirteenth. Mr. Hall's book being already well known, we need not criticise it at any length. On the whole, it is inferior to 'The Merchant and the Friar' in sprightliness, and it has the further misfortune of being so written that it does not exactly suit the demands of specialists. Mr. Hall knows a great deal about the working of the Exchequer and other matters connected with the administrative system of the Plantagenets, and he has also a marked sympathy for the social side of the national life. In this book, however, he is not technical enough for the student of constitutional detail, and not light enough in touch for those who are fond of historical novels. Still, we must not drop out of sight Mr. Hall's precise aim. "I have attempted in this book," he says, "nothing less than the delineation of living characters and the description of existing institutions at a given period of a typical reign." The design is ambitious, and even though success may be but partial, the attempt was worth making. We must also add with emphasis that this book contains a great deal of curious information, and may be used by the judicious teacher to qualify the dryness of lectures on constitutional history.

—The reader of Dr. Karl Federn's 'Dante and his Time' (McClure, Phillips & Co.) will probably be surprised, and take it for a hopeful sign, that such a book should have been made in Germany, for it presents the results of much study not in the form of the heavy dissertation dear to German scholars and their disciples, but in a series of popular essays, which are readable throughout and often abound in striking suggestions. Dr. Federn attempts to reconstruct the world into which Dante was born in 1265, its political, religious, and social conditions, and the immediate history of Florence. He traces the decay of the antique and the coming of the mediæval ideals, the conflict between Church and State, the rise of modern poetry; and, being a German, he emphasizes, perhaps unduly, the Germanic elements in the new order which superseded the ancient. It is important to have this side properly presented, although we may not accept all the conclusions which Dr. Federn reaches. To claim Dante as of Germanic origin on the assumption that *Alighieri* is simply the Italian for the old German *Aldiger*—which itself "has about the same significance as the word *Shakespeare*, meaning 'the ruler

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of the spear' "—is fanciful. Whatever Dante's remote ancestors may have been, he is the most *un*-German master in literature. But this is a slight point, which we cite merely to show the possible eccentricity of a pro-German treatment of the subject. In the last third of the book, Dr. Federn gives a summary biography of Dante and a criticism of his work. Here, also, there is much to commend—enthusiasm, opinions formed at first hand, flashes of insight. Dr. Federn does not dissect a literary cadaver, but tries to impart to his readers what a living force he has found in Dante. He writes most convincingly when he is least "psychological"; witness his statement that, as "there are things which nobody can paint without having gone through," Dante could never have described "the sinful love of Francesca and Paolo so touchingly" if he had not been guilty of the like himself! We shudder to think of the crimes which, by the same wonderful psychological law, Shakspere must have committed before he could draw Lady Macbeth and Macbeth, Iago and Iachimo, and the other villains of his plays. But, to sum up, the general drift of Dr. Federn's book is so interesting that it can be honestly recommended. There are few Dante-lovers so learned that they will not find in it some fresh suggestions; and the average reader will derive from it much valuable information, clothed in a vivacious style.

POOR-LAW RELIEF IN ENGLAND.—I.

Public Relief of the Poor. Six Lectures, by Thomas Mackay. London: John Murray. 1901.

The Early History of English Poor-Relief. By E. M. Leonard. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press. 1900.

Mr. Mackay's 'Public Relief of the Poor' is a work of extraordinary power which raises questions of general and urgent importance.

"Death and sickness," writes our author, "are inevitable incidents in human life, but destitution is economically avoidable. Its avoidance depends on two things: the quickened economic competence of our industrial population, and the relaxation of the primitive feudal status of servitude which, as the pauper habit, lingers in our midst, arresting progress and development."

These sentences contain the fundamental principles on which Mr. Mackay's criticism and history—and the two go hand in hand—of the English poor-law are based; and the powerfulness of his reasoning consists in the intellectual tenacity with which he adheres to these elementary truths, and the skill with which he shows that they in reality afford the key to the historical, social, and political problems raised by the confused growth and the inadequate reform of the scheme for the relief of the poor which has existed in England since the days of Elizabeth. Let it be added that Mr. Mackay is no *à-priori* theorist. He is thoroughly well grounded in the history and the literature of his subject. Nothing shows this better than the relation of his teaching to Miss E. N. Leonard's 'Early History of English Poor-Relief.' This lady, whose industry in research is more fully developed than her capacity for logical reasoning, would, we conceive, dissent from the conclusions and be opposed to the tone of Mr. Mackay's book. Yet the interesting facts ascertained by Miss Leonard's labors afford additional proof of the truth of Mr. Mackay's doctrine, namely, that, under the conditions of modern society, the only mode of affording real relief to the poor is to render every man competent to support himself, and thus, instead of pampering paupers, abolish pauperism.

The effect and nature of this doctrine are best illustrated, as its truth is also established, by insisting on two or three conclusions to which it inevitably leads. First, the legislation of Elizabeth, which is embodied in the Poor-Relief Act, 1601, 43 Eliz. c. 4 (which itself, as Miss Leonard points out, is little more than a reënactment of a statute of 1597), is placed in a new light. The Poor-Law statute of 1601 (which should be read together with the Statute of Charitable Uses, 43 Eliz. c. 4) was a deliberate attempt of English statesmanship to mitigate the sufferings of the poor, and constituted a philanthropic; but also in its essence a reactionary, effort to check the growth of the new organization of society which was based on personal liberty, on freedom of contract, and on free exchange of services. The act of 1601 was, in short, a return towards the principles of gradually expiring feudalism. Laborers were, when necessary, to be provided with work and with wages, but laborers were also deprived of the freedom to move from one place to another so as to sell their labor at the best advantage. In so far as the principles of the Elizabethan poor-law were put into effect, the working classes might be secured against starvation, but they were deprived of freedom. By the Law of Settlement, English laborers became again *adscripti glebæ*. No doubt the stringency of the Law of Settlement arises directly from the Poor-Relief Act of 1662, but the detestable law of Charles II. only carried out to its logical result a principle involved in the legislation of Elizabeth, and if the poor-law did not produce anything like the whole of its calamitous results till sixty years after the death of the great Queen, the reason is that the law was for a long time most imperfectly carried out. It is here that Miss Leonard strengthens the position of Mr. Mackay. She proves that the constant effort of the central Government, represented by the Privy Council, was needed in order to make the poor-law become a reality. It is no accident that Charles I. and his advisers were zealous in the enforcement of the poor-law, or, as Miss Leonard expresses it, "that these infringers of individual liberties were also, in intention at least, the protectors of the poor"; benevolent communism is the natural ally of political despotism.

It is worth while to insist on the true character of the Elizabethan poor-law because, for reasons fully explained by Mr. Mackay, even the reformers of 1834 were tempted to argue that, had the act of 1601 been "strictly interpreted," reform would have been unnecessary. This was a delusion. The act never was "strictly" interpreted. The idea on which it partially rested, that a workhouse could be turned into a place where real and profitable work was done, has been shown, not only by argument, but by experiment, to be erroneous. Support by the parish was, as already pointed out, found to involve a law of settlement fatal to the free exchange of labor. Parochial aid destroyed among the poor the sense of personal responsibility for their own support, and checked among the rich the natural impulses of personal, and therefore salutary benevolence; and the worst and necessary result of the English system of poor relief is that pauperism became, and still in spite of all reforms remains, for a large portion of the population, a recognized status. The evils of this state of things may be estimated by two facts. When an Act of George III. repealed the worst provisions of the statute of Charles II., and thereby restored something like personal liberty to the English laboring classes, it was found that the spirit of pauperism had become too strong to permit the free exchange of labor. Scotland, again, possessed a poor-law much like that of England, but the Scotch people were not pauperized. The reason is, that the central Government was not strong enough to enforce the law, and it remained more or less a dead-letter.

Secondly, the "New Poor-Law" of 1834 achieved a great and rapid success. It abolished the outdoor relief of able-bodied workmen, and this abolition of a monstrous abuse was enough to save England from destruction. The true glory of the Whig leaders is not that they carried the great Reform Act which, though it benefited the nation, promised the Whigs a long lease of power, but that they deliberately sacrificed their own popularity for the sake of carrying through a social reform which saved the country. The principles, indeed, on which the English poor-law was partially reformed were thought out and enunciated by Bentham and his school, but the Whigs of 1834 did what few statesmen have done either before or since their time: they carried out, though only to a limited extent, a reform demanded by the best thinkers of the day, though it was opposed to the popular sentiment of the time. On this matter it is unnecessary to say much; whoever doubts the necessity for the reforms embodied in the New Poor-Law should study Mr. Mackay's fourth chapter, or, what is even better, the report of 1834 on which the Poor-Law Amendment Act of that year is founded.

Thirdly, the new poor-law, though excellent as far as it went, aimed at but a very limited reform, and was never allowed to produce the full effect intended by its authors. This is a point on which Mr. Mackay most rightly lays great stress. The violence with which the act of 1834 was attacked has given rise to the belief that it was a drastic measure of thoroughgoing reform, whence the inference is suggested that, if England still suffers from pauperism, we may assume that, in some way or other, the principles advocated by the social reformers of 1834 were unsound. No idea could be more utterly groundless. The plain truth is, that popular opposition has always made it impossible to carry through any thoroughgoing reform of the poor-law. The Commissioners who drew up the report of 1834 no doubt soon came to the perfectly sound conclusion that to propose the abolition of the poor-law was absolutely impossible. They, again, or at any rate the Parliament which in the main acted on the Commissioners' report, did not venture on the absolute abolition of outdoor relief. What was really done was to

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offer relief to able-bodied persons on such terms as it was improbable that any man capable of supporting himself by work would accept. To carry this amendment of the law into effect was difficult enough. Sentimentalists and reactionists, supported by a large amount of popular feeling, denounced the use of the so-called "workhouse test," which was the essential feature of the plan proposed by the Commissioners, and to this day sentimentalists and reactionists are still opposed to that complete abolition of outdoor relief which it seems clear enough that the reformers of 1834 contemplated as the ultimate result of their new system. They apparently hoped that one Board of Guardians after another would, acting on the suggestions of the central authority constituted by the act, see the expediency of gradually abolishing a form of relief which in the long run is at once demoralizing and expensive. This expectation has not been fulfilled. Its fulfilment, indeed, was hardly to be expected by any one who thoroughly understood the character of the local bodies by which the English poor-law has been administered. True it is that the abolition of outdoor relief would lighten the pressure of the rates, and would in the long run be of the highest benefit to the poor. But it is also true that the immediate effect of refusing (say) five shillings a week to a widow who, if she remains outside the house, can earn an additional five shillings, and thereby do something to support herself and her children, is in the first instance to increase the charge upon the parish, and also to act with apparent harshness to a person who hates going into the workhouse, and is willing to do the best she can in the way of contributing towards the support of herself and her family.

Now there can be nothing more certain than that English guardians will be much impressed by the immediate effects and not be impressed at all by the ultimate and distant results of their conduct. It is just possible, though not certain, that a body of officials and trained experts living in London might have carried through the policy, and, as any one who reads Mr. Mackay's bock will feel convinced, the very salutary policy, of altogether abolishing outdoor relief. But no human being can believe that Poor-Law Guardians would ever have systematically carried out a course of action which, while it appeared to them extravagant, was also opposed to their feelings of humanity. If it was intended to abolish outdoor relief, and thus at any rate go near to abolishing pauperism, the administration of the poor-law ought to have been placed in the hands of some central authority endowed with the power and representing the wisdom of the nation. Small local bodies are not fitted to carry through large national reforms. This, at any rate, is the inference irresistibly suggested by Mr. Mackay's account of the results flowing from the measure of 1834. That the reform, imperfect as it was, achieved the great results which may fairly be attributed to it, is, to a thoughtful reader, a matter of astonishment. That a reform which fell far below what its authors felt was required by the necessities of the time, and which was so opposed to popular feeling that it was never fully carried out, did not get rid of pauperism created by centuries of injudicious legislation, excites great regret, but can excite no surprise. The true nature of the legislation of Elizabeth, the results of the old poor-law, the failures no less than the success attributable to the reform of 1834, all point to one and the same conclusion, that pauperism is, as Mr. Mackay teaches, an evil which is avoidable and which, as it has been fostered by the errors, can, conceivably at least, be removed by the wisdom of legislators.

BARBARIAN INVASIONS OF ITALY.

The Barbarian Invasions of Italy. By Pasquale Villari. Translated by Linda Villari. With frontispiece and maps. 2 volumes, pp. 231, 238. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The attention of Signor Villari, which seems of late to have been diverted from the times of Savonarola and Machiavelli, is now occupied with the origins of modern Italy. To his book on the first two centuries of Florence there succeeds a sketch of the barbarian invasions in so far as they affected Italy from the coming of the Visigoths to the coronation of Charlemagne. This is expressly designed to be a popular work, and, though the process of translation has cut it in two, it is really complete in one volume. Footnotes are of rare occurrence, and the style, while it is by no means infantile, is adapted to the taste of those who are not scholars. Indeed, Signor Villari holds strong views on the subject of historical composition. Admitting that research has made great progress since the establishment of the national kingdom, he nevertheless laments the loss of books "supplying narratives of past events in a simple, easy, readable style, such as abounded formerly in Italy, and served as models to other countries. . . . Yet, undeniably, the true object of ransacking the national archives is to assist the production of narratives suited for the general mass of readers."

Impressed by this deficiency of Italian literature, and moved by the conviction which has just been expressed, Signor Villari induced Hoepli to publish a special series of popular histories. Some of the volumes have already appeared—for example, a revised edition of Balzani's 'Italian Chronicles,' and 'The Liberation of Italy,' by Professor Orsi, of Venice. Besides treating the different periods and aspects of Italian history, it is designed that the series shall embrace the history of other civilized nations. All this is primarily for the benefit of the Italians themselves, but we shall be surprised if the leading volumes are not eventually translated into English. We have given the above explanation partly because it may be of some bibliographical interest, but mainly because it will serve to explain the scope of Signor Villari's work on the barbarian invasions. In the author's own words, "It is neither a learned nor a scholastic book, nor is it a philosophic study of universal history, such as Bryce's 'Holy Roman Empire,' or Quinet's 'Italian Revolutions.' I merely narrate events in chronological and logical order, without commenting or descanting on them, doing my best to avoid dryness."

This is the author's own statement, but its modesty needs to be supplemented by a word or two which shall point out the real merits of the work. While it deals with the same period which is covered by the numerous volumes of Hodgkin, and while it confesses obligation to half-a-dozen other histories of recent date, no one who is familiar with the writings and personality of Signor Villari can imagine that it is simply a piece of compilation. After naming Bury, Malfatti, Bertolini, Dahn, Mühlbacher, and Hartmann, the preface proceeds: "I have also recurred to certain other authorities, such as Gibbon, Tillemont, and Muratori, who never grows old; nor have I forgotten to refer to original documents." The narrative (and of course the book consists chiefly of narrative) is simple, well-ordered, and exact; but that is not quite all. Though the philosophical strain is avoided, the tone of the *Jahrbücher* is avoided as well; and even if we accept Signor Villari's remark that he has not commented or descanted on events, it is clear that he shows a willingness to venture general statements. For example, the chapter entitled "The Fall of the Empire," with which the book begins, contains broad reflections on the subject of Roman decline; and, just at the close, we encounter such a saying as this: "The constitution of the Frankish Empire was the chief and central achievement of the Middle Ages." There is an abundance of good narrative, but there is also from time to time an expression of mature opinion.

Some readers will perhaps regret that Professor Villari has found it inconsistent with his plan to estimate the exact contribution which was made by the Germanic tribes to the life and institutions of Italy. In the case of all the provinces where the barbarians established themselves, the historical student finds it hard to determine the number of the invaders, the character of their social relations with the Romans, and the extent of the changes for which they were directly responsible. What were the chief Teutonic elements which entered into the fabric of mediæval civilization in Italy? How was the system of landholding throughout the northern and central parts of the peninsula affected by the circumstances of the migration? In what wise do the customs which the invaders brought with them forecast the Italian type of feudalism? These are questions of high moment, and any opinion which Signor Villari might express concerning them would be entitled to careful consideration. As it is, however, such matters are almost wholly ruled out by the conception of the series, and we must look elsewhere for a discussion of them.

Signor Villari's account of the Gothic, Lombard, and Frankish occupation takes the form of a story rather than of a disquisition, but it never assumes the tone of a romance. The picturesque aspects of life during the fifth and sixth centuries which leave so profound an impression upon a mind like that of Charles Kingsley, and which have also appealed to the imagination of Mr. Hodgkin, are not thrown into strong relief here. The sequence of events is more regarded than the play of forces. It is a plain tale that Signor Villari tells. His period abounds with materials for epic or dramatic treatment, but with poetry or even with rhetoric he does not meddle. Everything is kept in stern subordination to the requirements of a sober and dispassionate history.

We have now described at sufficient length the aim and method of this work.

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It remains for us to express some opinion concerning the quality of the execution. Where the scale is so small and the issues are so great, success or failure must hinge upon the author's accuracy, his power of selection, and his gift of telling statement. Signor Villari offers little that will seem new to the mediævalist, and he is precluded by conditions of space from investigating moot points like the negotiations of Athaulf and Honorius, the relations of Theodoric with Boethius, and the character of Theodora. On the other hand, he is careful, not to say conservative, in statement, he has chosen his topics with a discrimination that comes from wide general knowledge, and he has fulfilled his express purpose of avoiding dryness. It follows that this book in the English translation will henceforth occupy a fixed place between the manual of Church and the *opus* of Hodgkin.

In respect to chronology, the middle point of the narrative comes just before the middle of the sixth century—that is to say, the book divides at the time of St. Benedict and Totila the Ostrogoth. Without attempting, however, to analyze the subject-matter in any detail, there are two topics which seem to invite special notice—Signor Villari's comments upon the decline of Rome, and his attitude towards the Holy See. Beyond a slight discussion of these questions we must not go.

By common consent, the Empire fell not because the barbarians were stronger in the fifth and sixth centuries than they had been in the days of Marcus Aurelius, Decius, and Gallienus, but because the Romans were then enfeebled. Instead of expressing surprise at the dismemberment of the provinces or at the decline which produced it, Signor Villari is astonished that the imperial system endured so long as it did. What impresses him most deeply, as he surveys the Empire at its widest extent, is the failure to secure any real assimilation. As the rule of Rome extended itself farther and farther, the difficulties which arose in the path of true unity grew greater with each forward step.

"The assimilation of the Italian populations had proved comparatively easy, but Africa, Spain, Rhætia, and Gaul opposed an increasingly obstinate resistance. Then fresh obstacles had to be faced in Asia Minor and in Greece, where the Romans encountered, for the first time, a higher civilization than their own. After conquering the country by force of arms, they were conquered in their turn by the culture of Greece, and were obliged to fuse their own with it in order to spread both through the world. Thus, by the time the Empire reached to the Rhine and the Danube, it no longer possessed any real kernel of unity corresponding with its outer shell. The Empire was neither a state nor a nation; it was a compound of different races, held together by force and subject to the same civilization."

Some time ago it was usual to insist upon the uniformity that Rome secured by her conquests and the spread of her law. The so-called "Romanization" of the world was attested by an appeal to the poets like Claudian and Rutilius, who speak in glowing terms of the universal brotherhood. More recently, the tendency seems to be in the direction of emphasizing latent differences, of separating the Greek from the Roman. It is discovered that, after all, the civilization of Rome was hardly more than a veneer, beneath which persisted irreconcilable hostilities of race. Whether by way of restoring the balance or not, Signor Villari is apparently disposed to lay more stress upon the mutual opposition of the parts than upon the seeming unity of the whole, and in this latent antagonism he finds a fundamental cause of downfall. According to his view, one leading function of the Empire was to create that "moral and civil unity of the ancient world which was a necessary preliminary towards the formation of nationalities." But such moral and social unity as was attained could not be permanent after the dawn of the national instinct.

"Nationalities, in fact, can neither live nor thrive unless so closely inter-related as to feel themselves members of the same family. But their rise put an end to the existence of that ancient world which recognized the absolute predominance of one civilization alone, outside of which were only barbarians."

Towards the Church, Signor Villari adopts the attitude neither of a Guelph nor of a Ghibelline, but of the historian who recognizes the importance of Christianity and laments the present indifference of Italian writers to ecclesiastical and theological subjects. "Without investigating them," he asks, "how can it be possible to appreciate the history of a people that founded the Catholic Church, of a people whose religious life was formerly so intense, and so closely connected with its political, literary, artistic, and civil life?" From such a passage it will be inferred that no great enthusiasm is likely to be shown for the Papacy as a purely religious or ecclesiastical institution; but, besides being pontiffs, popes were Italians, and in this capacity they make a direct appeal to our author's sympathy. They were the natural leaders in those days of desperate distress when leaders were needed.

Signor Villari's freedom from anti-clerical prejudice is well seen in his portrait of Pope Gregory the Great, to whose career a whole chapter is devoted. While the celebrated letter to Phocas receives just censure, and while it is recognized that Gregory was willing to sacrifice everything to the interests of the Church, the harsher lines of his character are not unduly emphasized, nor does his true nobility of purpose fail to elicit due praise.

"The fourteen books of his *Epistolæ* form an imperishable monument to his memory, and a most valuable contribution to the history of his times. These Epistles teach us to appreciate the lofty character of the man who might be truly called the second founder of the Papacy; while the writer's practical power, untiring energy, Christian charity, and fervent holiness are brilliantly displayed throughout their pages. They plainly show us why he became the first man of his age, and not only the leader of the Church, but of Italian policy, and, to some extent, of the policy of all Europe."

The establishment of the papal state is another important incident of which Signor Villari takes notice, but the relations of Pippin with the Church are not made the subject of any special digression from the narrative.

The translation by Signora Villari is very good, but there are several slips of the pen in connection with names and dates. Those, however, which we have noticed are so obvious that they will not mislead any reader save the most unwary. Other volumes in the same series are announced by Professor Errera of Turin, Professor Salvemini of Florence, and Professor Brizzolara of Reggio.

Franz Schubert. Von Richard Heuberger. Berlin: "Harmonie."

One of the most noteworthy phenomena in the musical world to-day is the growing recognition of the exalted rank of Schubert among the great masters, and perception of the fact that he was a pathfinder in every branch of the art. When he died (1828) he was acknowledged to be a good song-writer, but otherwise very little was known about his works. Even his songs were soon neglected, while the land was filled with the sound of Mendelssohn's infinitely inferior *Lieder*, until a revival was effected, in a roundabout way, through Liszt's arrangement and performance of pianoforte versions of them. Some of the instrumental works were brought to light by Schumann ten years after Schubert's death; but they were still "music of the future" to most concert-goers. The leading Parisian orchestra refused, in 1842, after rehearsing the first movement of the superb symphony in C, to go on with the remainder; while in London, two years later, the behavior of the players in the Philharmonic Orchestra toward this same symphony was so insulting that Mendelssohn declined to proceed with the rehearsal.

Schubert's life was so short and uneventful that it is hardly surprising that the literature relating to him should be scant. The elaborate and exhaustive biography by Max Friedländer, promised years ago, has not yet appeared; Kreissle's meritorious biography (1865) is antiquated, and Niggli's is a mere sketch. In the English language Sir George Grove's equally erudite and enthusiastic article in his 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (120 columns) remains the most satisfactory and useful monograph on the subject; but, having been written twenty-one years ago, it is naturally incomplete. At that time the greater part of Schubert's works had not been critically edited and printed. It is only quite recently that Breitkopf & Härtel have completed their great undertaking of printing the entire works under the able editorship of Dr. Mandyczewski; and the first biographer to benefit thereby is Heuberger, who touches on the well-known biographic facts briefly, and devotes most of his space (there are only 114 pages) to the discussion of Schubert's achievements in the various branches of music.

To the songs less space is given than their importance seems to call for; but that is no doubt because the author felt that that subject had been pretty well covered, while concerning the other works much of importance remained to be said. Following the example of Mandyczewski, he takes pains to correct the impression that Schubert was uncritical. He may have written many of his songs in a clairvoyant state of inspiration, but when he rewrote them—which he often did, in some cases three or four times—his critical sense was keenly active. Doubt is thrown (p. 54) on the well-known anecdote regarding the impromptu composition of "Hark, hark, the Lark" on the back of a bill of fare. The autograph is written on stout *Regalpapier*, and is included in a notebook containing also some other songs. This, however, does not seem to us to disprove the anecdote, for

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it is quite possible and likely that Schubert rewrote the song when he got home, and did not keep the bill of fare. In any case, the story is so characteristic that it must be considered as particularly *ben trovato*.

In one respect, it must be admitted that Schubert was uncritical—in the choice of poems for many of his songs, and of libretti for his numerous short operas. It is a significant fact, on which the author might have dwelt, that, of the best seven songs among the first 262 which Schubert wrote, six are to poems by Goethe and one to a poem by Schiller. This suggests the inference that if he could have had a Goethe or a Schiller to write libretti for him, he might have composed operas as dramatic as his "Erlking." He was passionately fond of writing for the stage, and persevered in it all his life; but although several of the operas contain some of his best music, he never enjoyed a success, partly because of the wretched texts, partly because he lacked theatrical skill, as the author shows convincingly (p. 73). He should have added, however, what Liszt pointed out, that while he lacked the theatric knack, he had a genuine dramatic talent, as was often manifested in his songs, through which he influenced the development of realistic operatic music indirectly. In all other branches of vocal music he was a direct promoter of reform and progress. Heuberger's remarks anent Schubert's male choruses and cantatas cannot be too urgently called to the attention of the numerous vocal societies in this country. Here, too, as in the *Lied*, it will be acknowledged some day that Mendelssohn has been allowed unjustly to usurp a place of honor belonging to Schubert, by right of priority as well as of superior genius. Concerning the male chorus, Heuberger says:

"Before Schubert, the only composer in this genre that calls for mention is Mozart, the inventor of it. From him he got, however, little more than suggestions. What the male chorus has become since Mozart is comprised exhaustively in the works of Schubert, who is the first in time, and the greatest writer of male choruses up to the present day."

When he wrote his oratorio fragment, "Lazarus," the author remarks:

"he had no model to influence him. Of Bach he knew but little, as we know through Hüttenbrenner. Some of Handel's works he had, indeed, heard or played with enthusiasm; but when he went to work himself it came over him like tongues of fire, and he spoke a language like none before him. He wrote no pseudo-archaic style, but a thoroughly modern, specifically Schubertian cantata, full of original and deeply emotional music worthy of his genius."

Among the instrumental works, the two last symphonies have long held the place of honor they deserve; and so have some of the quartets and other chamber works; but it is only within recent years that amateurs and critics have had the courage to confess to themselves that in euphony and variety of color charm, in melodic spontaneity and originality of harmonic modulation, they surpass even Beethoven's symphonies and chamber works. Of these compositions Heuberger gives interesting analyses. Schubert's epoch-making originality as a writer for the pianoforte is also admirably discussed (pp. 23, 36-38, 53, 60). While Beethoven called his short pieces "bagatelles," Schubert gave his best in them, and thus fathered the endless variety of short pieces that have gradually displaced the sonata. He also ennobled and practically created the Viennese dances which subsequently, under the banner of Strauss and Lanner, conquered the whole world. Nor is that all. He created an entirely new style of pianoforte music when he wrote his four-hand marches and other pieces. These have a charm and an "idiomatically pianistic quality" that have never been equalled by any of the thousands of four-hand pieces that have since been written.

The importance of Heuberger's book lies in its thus emphasizing the manysidedness of Schubert's musical genius, and the great number of paths in which he was a pioneer. Even without this feature the volume would be indispensable to Schubert-lovers because of its abundant portraits, facsimiles, and illustrations. Unfortunately there is no index or real table of contents. The last twenty pages are an appendix containing much interesting information, some of which should have been incorporated in the text, and the rest printed as footnotes in the proper places.

The Founder of Mormonism: A Psychological Study of Joseph Smith, jr. By J. Woodbridge Riley, one-time Instructor in English, New York University. With an introductory preface by Prof. George Trumbull Ladd. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902. Pp. xix, 446.

Most writers, like Mr. Linn, whose elaborate and accurate work, 'The Story of the Mormons,' we lately reviewed, have approached the question of the sincerity of its founder from the outside—from the external history of the sect, from facts more than from philosophy. Mr. Riley, on the other hand, aims to ascertain what manner of man the Mormon founder was by a study of his characteristics as stamped and expanded by heredity and environment. Starting in the ultimate heyday of Smith's power and life, he traces salient family traits so far as he can through seven generations backward to 1666, and the surroundings by which they were successively influenced. The heterogeneous elements in 1805 gave birth to a leader whose life is a riddle for which, as Mr. Riley holds, the new-born hypnotic psychology furnishes the most universal solvent, though he confesses that, "after all, how far the wonderful power of Peep-stone Joe was fictitious and how far due to unconscious self-suggestion, it is hard to decide" (p. 185). Thanks to the curious peep-stones which the revelator called his Urim and Thummim, he unconsciously and accidentally first hypnotized himself—and that a decade before Braid in England first published some analogous occult discoveries. (The theory of every operation is later than its performance.) Surprised that persistent gazing on his crystals, or opaques, threw him into hypnosis where he took suggestion as a cat laps milk, Smith could not fail to repeat the hitherto undetected process. The result was, that, while he was under unconscious conditions through suggestions or impulses, whether from within him or without him, his mental visions, though airy nothings, were projected outwardly and became external realities with local habitations. While in the dark he saw lights and angels. His illusions were of identical nature, from his youthful guidance of money-diggers to the last verse in the Mormon Bible. Those who wonder that visions were so multitudinous and vast should remember that in hypnosis it is the first step which costs, for hypnotizing becomes more and more easy, and each new trance most naturally follows in the wake of its predecessors. This explanation is countenanced by much of what fills the Book of Mormon. Interwoven in its warp and woof are allusions to the Bible (298 to the New Testament), and as many to anti-popery, anti-masonry, and anti-deism—the three topics most talked of at the time and place where Smith's sacred book was found, or invented, or translated.

In regard to the meaningless hieroglyphs, the "Caractors" (in the handwriting of Smith himself) which were sent for translation to Professor Anthon, Mr. Riley thinks that "Smith doubtless believed them of supernatural origin—and that because they were written under more or less unconscious conditions." On the same ground the Mormon prophet must have believed his Book of Mormon with all its supplements to be divinely revealed, and so he was no knave at all, but throughout believed his own lie to be truth, and it hence became truth to him. If we believe this theory, we can see how Smith won disciples as soon as he fell in with victims who were either as good hypnotic subjects as he was, or whom he could manipulate up to an equal receptivity. His early success in the use of "collective hypnosis" in securing eight eye-witnesses of optics keen enough to see the gold plates, and who "hefted" them with their own hands, could not fail to be followed by further miracles of its class.

If Mr. Riley holds Smith to have believed in one revelation, why not in all? In a word, as we incline to think, our author, mounted on hypnotics, rides his hobby to death. His proving hypnotics to quadrate in so many points with Mormonism reminds us of interpretations still popular in orthodox circles of St. John's apocalypse as foretelling or tallying either with the career of Napoleon or, as others are equally sure, with that of all the Popes; or, as a third class judge, with signs of the "Second Advent"—and that with minute historical accuracy. Mr. Riley's treatise is of wonderful ingenuity and readableness, yet on the whole it deepens the feeling we have long had that Mormonism is, in fact, a phenomenon in one grand feature very like the Scriptural apocalypse as described by Dr. Robert South—"A book intricate, perplexed, and, for the most part, never to be understood; on which, when wits and industry have done their utmost, the best commentary is conjecture."

Some latent distrust of hypnotism as too weak to bear the load he puts upon it, is betrayed by our author. He declares the prophet's "mind seriously affected," so that his words and deeds became as crazy as anything in the mad Dean's Gulliver—as when he said, "I know more than all the world put together, and God is my right-hand man"; and again when he demanded of Van Buren a million dollars in damages as his due from Government for persecutions, and when, through wire-

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workers, he was nominated and was actually running for United States President at the hour of his death. In reading Mr. Riley, one thinks how Rufus Choate would have welcomed hypnotism. Could he have reinforced his insanity defences with that plea, all murderers would have gone unwhipped of justice.

Shakespear. By W. Carew Hazlitt. London: Quaritch.

Mr. Hazlitt was disappointed in Mr. Sidney Lee's 'Life of Shakespeare.' It seemed to him little more than a readable distillation of Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines.' He determined, therefore, to take up the subject himself, or, rather, to resume a "half-abandoned design," and the fruits of his determination are before us. He insists, however, that his volume does not profess to be a systematic biography—that it is simply "an essay, restricted to new points of view, which may or may not be held in certain instances to amount to new facts." He claims the same freedom of conjecture and inference in settling the details of Shakspere's life that would be allowed in other uncertain cases, where the person involved was less considerable. Accordingly, he deals largely in a process which he calls "the concentration of scattered points and hints."

In the main we may accept Mr. Hazlitt's characterization of his own book. Yet it is not an essay in the strict sense of the word. It is rather a collection of essays, for there is little continuity between chapter and chapter. The whole thing rambles and staggers and halts along. There are digressions so little pertinent that they might well have been relegated to an appendix; there are pages of dreary commonplace, and there is everywhere, of course, Mr. Hazlitt's clumsy style—his unsurpassably long-winded fashion of saying the simplest things. As for the restriction to "new points of view," it is not and could not be thoroughgoing; but we meet with a good many new guesses. Most of these are of dubious value, but there is now and then one which merits the attention of scholars.

Mr. Hazlitt, though he has edited a collection of antique jest-books, is somewhat deficient in humor. He can hardly forgive Shakspere for having so much of it. One gets the impression that he regards a joke as vulgar unless it is either academic or elephantine. If space allowed, we should like to quote his profoundly diverting animadversions on Touchstone's words to Audrey: "I am here with thee and thy goats, as the most capricious poet, honest Ovid, was among the Goths." The reader will find it on page 135, embedded in a chapter on "Self-Culture."

With the Sonnets Mr. Hazlitt has little patience. "Small, very small, loss to the world and to the fame of the writer had it been if the MS. had perished." "The sentiment is often thin and weak, the diction poor, and the metre faulty." "In the Sonnets, forsooth, we see the poetical expression of the author in its earliest and rawest form." "I grieve that they are so poor." As to metre, one is disposed to set up Shakspere, even in his "earliest and rawest" period, as a match for Mr. Hazlitt, especially after reading a note on page 281. Here, having described a line in Sonnet cvii. as "neither sense nor metre," he presents us with an emendation. The line is this: "And peace proclaims *olives* of endless age." The new reading which, we presume, is expected to mend the measure, runs as follows: "And peace proclaims *an olive* of endless age"!

Much as he despises the Sonnets as literature, Mr. Hazlitt attaches some biographical value to them. But his attempts to extract this biographical material are not more successful than those of his predecessors. Bartholomew Griffin, a decidedly minor poet, appears as a candidate for the position of Shakspere's friend, replacing the perhaps sufficiently discredited Pembroke. The dark lady is Griffin's wife. All this is advanced tentatively, with other conjectures of a more trivial kind. We cannot forbear quoting the following sentence: "Shakespear's 80th Sonnet suggests his acquaintance with the literary gifts of a contemporary, who had been more successful than him in ingratiating himself with a common lady friend at a distance from London, yet at one accessible on horseback, even if not without fatigue." "Mr. W. H.," by the way, becomes William Hammond, concerning whom Mr. Hazlitt favors us with some information and much ingenious guesswork.

It must not be inferred that the volume is valueless. Mr. Hazlitt is a learned and indefatigable bibliographer, as well as a persevering manufacturer and revamper of books. His qualities, good and bad, are well known to scholars, and they all appear in the present "essay." To scholars, then, his 'Shakespear' may be left. They will use it with considerable vexation of spirit, but may find some things in it that will do them good. The general reader will probably let it alone.

Letters from Egypt. By Lady Duff Gordon. London: R. Brimley Johnson; New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

Lovers of some of the best letters in English literature will rejoice that Lady Duff Gordon's from Egypt have been reprinted in a single volume. The first series appeared in 1865, the second ('Last Letters') in 1875; and both are now brought together, and some other letters are added. Moreover, all are now printed as Lady Gordon wrote them, so that many characteristic touches, omitted earlier, for various reasons, are given their proper place. This is as it should be; for, if there were ever any doubts as to the lasting quality of this correspondence, they would vanish now that nearly forty years have tested it. The present writer knows of no other Englishwoman's letters that compare with these, and he questions whether the letters of many Englishmen during the past generation will be read longer, or with more delight.

What first strikes one in Lady Gordon's letters is their naturalness; they have high literary excellence, but they do not sacrifice to it the priceless quality, spontaneity. She describes with wonderful vividness the Egypt of the sixties, which had not yet become the commonplace resort of Cook tourists. The land, the people, the associations were to her inexhaustibly interesting. "I write to you out of the real Arabian Nights," is her first greeting from Cairo. But the gorgeousness of the Oriental pageantry is not her main theme. She is not merely a sympathetic traveller, who observes, describes, and passes on. She seeks the human in the Copts and Arabs among whom she lives. She learns to know them better than any other Englishwoman has ever known them; they admit her to their confidence; they look to her for sympathy and aid in their distress; and they come at last almost to worship her as their "Own Lady." The economist not less than the historian will not overlook her account of Egypt from 1862 to 1869, and both will acknowledge that that country to-day, after twenty years of British rule, has greatly improved. Not for the mass of entertaining information, nor for the succession of vivid descriptions, however, will Lady Gordon's letters be most prized. Their deepest charm lies in the fact that they reveal one of the most fascinating of modern women, one who was almost the best specimen of the highest type of Anglo-Saxon womanhood—highly cultivated, tender, strong, fearless; always ready to protect the weak from social or political tyranny; hating pretence; mixing as a matter of course with the best that London could offer or with the humble fellaheen at Luxor; radiantly beautiful; both witty and humorous; and of perfect courage. These letters, written in solitary exile by a consumptive stricken in the prime of life, have no trace of invalidism about them; and, but for passing references to her condition, one would suppose that the writer was as vigorous in body as in mind. But, as Mr. George Meredith says, in an admirable introduction, "her dislike of superlatives, . . . renders hard the task of portraying a woman whose character calls them forth. To him knowing her, they would not fit; her individuality passes between epithets. . . . Lucie Duff Gordon was of the order of women of whom a man of many years may say that their like is to be met but once or twice in a lifetime."

Lady Gordon's daughter, Mrs. Janet Ross, edits this volume. It is to be regretted that she has not amplified the biographical memoir, which stands practically as it first appeared in 1875. A more detailed account of the beautiful Lucie would be welcomed by every one who comes to know her through these letters, and who will hardly be appeased by the chapters devoted to her in Mrs. Ross's 'Three Generations of Englishwomen.' A few inaccuracies ought also to have been corrected; for instance, Heine's "Wenn ich an deinem Hause," first printed in 1824, could not have been inspired by the merry girl of thirteen with whom he played at Boulogne in 1834. The volume has three portraits of Lady Gordon, but not the most beautiful, by Phillips.

Sheridan's Plays. London: David Nutt. 1902.

There have been many editions of Sheridan's famous comedies, but all careful students of stage literature will be glad to possess the authoritative version, printed from the original manuscripts and edited by W. Fraser Rae, which has been published by David Nutt, in a handsome and convenient volume, with every advantage of good paper and typography. Comparatively few persons, probably, are aware that none of these plays except "The Rivals" was given to the world in printed form by Sheridan himself. All the other published copies were reproductions of

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those used upon the stage. The original manuscript of "The Rivals" was lost, unfortunately, in the fire which destroyed Covent Garden Theatre, and it is therefore impossible to discover the character or the extent of the alterations made in the piece by the author between the first unsuccessful production of it on the 17th of January, 1775, and the second triumphal presentation nine days later. This, perhaps, is not a matter of much consequence. At all events, we have the comedy in the amended form which Sheridan prepared for the press. Thus there is now a certified text of all the plays, which can scarcely fail to be useful hereafter.

In common with other playwrights, Sheridan, of course, suffered a good deal at the hands of stage-managers and actors, but on the whole he has not been treated very badly. Even adapters, such as Mr. Augustin Daly, did not venture to take important liberties with his dialogue. That he was "cut" sometimes pretty severely, as in the cases of Faulkland and Julia in "The Rivals," is not to be wondered at. That the creator of the Absolutes, Sir Lucius and "Fighting Bob," should have been responsible for this precious pair is a literary fact that cannot easily be explained. Yet, strange to say, that intolerable prig and egotist Faulkland excited the admiration of more than one contemporary critic. In his prefatory notes, Mr. Rae furnishes a number of extracts from the press notices of "The Rivals" as originally played, and they make very amusing reading. In many respects, they are almost as silly as those of to-day, but they indicate pretty plainly that gross incompetency was almost as common among actors then as it is now.

In addition to the Sheridan pieces, "The Rivals," "The School for Scandal," "The Critic," "St. Patrick's Day," and "The Duenna," the present volume contains Mrs. Frances Sheridan's "A Journey to Bath" and an introduction by the late Marquess of Dufferin, Sheridan's great grandson.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, W. J. American Merchant Ships and Sailors. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Adams, C. J. How Baldy Won the County Seat. F. Tennyson Neely.
Allen, J. B. An Elementary Greek Grammar. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Anstey, F. A Bayard from Bengal. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Baldwin, J. M. Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. Vol. II. Macmillan. $5.
Banks, Elizabeth L. The Autobiography of a "Newspaper Girl." Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
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Cawein, Madison. Kentucky Poems. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Chambers's Encyclopædia of English Literature. New edition by David Patrick. Vol. II. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Cholmondeley, Mary. Moth and Rust, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Churchill, Winston. The Crisis. (James K. Hackett edition.) Macmillan.
Crawfurd, Oswald. Two Masques. London: Chapman Hall.
Dennis, L. M., and Whittelsey, Theodore. Qualitative Analysis. A Manual for the Use of Students of Chemistry in Schools and Colleges. Ginn & Co. $1.
Dickerson, Fannie M. Mary Had a Little Lamb: The True Story of the Real Mary and the Real Lamb. F. A. Stokes Co.
Dole, N. H. Famous Composers. 2 vols. (Extra illustrated edition.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Elliott, J. W. A Plea for Hardy Plants, with Suggestions for Effective Arrangement. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.60.
Ellis, G. Modern Practical Joinery. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $5.
Finley, Martha. Elsie's Winter Trip. Dodd, Mead & Co. 85 cents.
Fisher, G. P. The Grounds of Theistic and Christian Belief. Rev. ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Fleming, Thomas. Around the Capital with Uncle Hank. Recorded together with Many Pictures. Nutshell Publishing Co.
Gilder, Jeannette L. and J. B. Authors at Home; Personal and Biographical Sketches of Well-Known American Writers. New ed. A. Wessels Co. $1.
Grahame, Kenneth. Dream Days. New ed. John Lane. $2.50.
Gray, P. L. In a Car of Gold. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.
Greene, Sarah P. McL. Winslow Plain. Harpers. $1.50.
Hall, G. E. A Balloon Ascension at Midnight. San Francisco: Paul Elder and Morgan Shepard. $1.00.
Hall, H. F. The Soul of a People. Macmillan.
Halsey, F. A. Worm and Spiral Gearing. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Hearn, Lafcadio. Kotto: Being Japanese Curios, with Sundry Cobwebs. Macmillan.
Higginson, Ella. A Forest Orchid, and Other Stories. Macmillan. $1.50.
Higginson, Ella. When the Birds Go North Again. Macmillan. $1.25.
Hillern, Wilhelmine von, and Safford, Mary J. On the Cross: A Romance of the Passion Play at Oberammergau. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Huebner, F. C. Charles Killbuck: An Indian's Story of the Border Wars of the American Revolution. Washington: The Herbert Publishing Company. $1.50.
Hulbert, A. B. Paths of the Mound-Building Indians and Great Game Animals. (Historic Highways of America.—I.). Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co. $2.
Ireland, Mary E. Timothy and his Friends. Saalfield Publishing Co. $1.
Jennings, H. J. Our Homes and How to Beautify Them. London: Harrison & Sons. 5s.
Labberton, R. H. Labberton's Universal History from the Earliest Times to the Present—in the Light of Recent Discoveries, with Genealogical and Geographical Illustrations. Rev. ed. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Lang, Andrew. The Book of Romance. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.60.
Leypoldt, A. H. Index to the Publishers' Trade List Annual, 1902. Publishers' Weekly.
Lillibridge, W. L. Edward Reynolds. The Grafton Press.
Little Masterpieces of Science. Edited by George Iles. 6 vols. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Lodge, H. C. A Fighting Frigate, and Other Essays and Addresses. Scribners. $1.50.
London, Jack. A Daughter of the Snows. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
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Luther, M. L. The Henchman. Macmillan. $1.50.
Macdonald, H. M. Electric Waves: Being an Adams Prize Essay in the University of Cambridge. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 10s.
Mackenzie, Alexander. Voyages from Montreal through the Continent of North America to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans in 1789 and 1793, with an Account of the Rise and State of the Fur Trade. 2 vols. New ed. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Maclaren, Ian. The Homely Virtues. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
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Molesworth, Mrs. Peterkin. Macmillan. $1.25.
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Sweetser, Kate D. Ten Girls from Dickens. J. F. Taylor & Co. $2.
Tennyson, Alfred. In Memoriam. Century Co.
The Primrose and Darwinism, by a Field Naturalist. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
The Works of Samuel Lover. 6 vols. (New Library Edition.) Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $9.
Thorne, James. The Avon of Shakespeare. Brentano.
Tooker, Z. F. The Call of the Sea. Century Co.
Untersteiner, Alfredo. A Short History of Music. (Translated by S. C. Very.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
Upson, Arthur. Westwind Songs. Minneapolis: Edmund D. Brooks.
Wallace, William. Poetical Works of Robert Burns, with Life and Notes. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Welldon, J. E. C. The Revelation of the Holy Spirit. Macmillan. $1.75.
Weyman, S. J. In Kings' Byways. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Williams, H. N. Madame De Pompadour. Scribners. $7.50.
Woodruff, C. R. Proceedings of the Boston Conference for Good City Government and Eighth Annual Meeting of the National Municipal League, held May 7, 8, and 9, 1902. Philadelphia: National Municipal League.
Wright, C. D. Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.
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